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No. 1 in **Citizenship** Series

FOR THE CANADIAN FORCES

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The first of a series of pamphlets on Canadian Citizenship by outstanding authorities, prepared especially for the armed forces by the Bureau of Current Affairs.

The Canadian Constitution

By Brigadier W. J. Lawson, Q.C., Judge Advocate General of the Canadian Forces.

BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
Ottawa, Canada

INTRODUCTION

In a foreword to the first of the regular series of Current Affairs Pamphlets issued in October, 1951, the Minister of National Defence, the Hon. Brooke Claxton, stated that service personnel "should know as much as possible about Canada . . ." Accordingly, the Bureau of Current Affairs has initiated a series of citizenship pamphlets of which this one, *The Canadian Constitution*, is the first.

This pamphlet deals with the written and unwritten features of our system of government and makes comparison with the constitutions of the United Kingdom and the United States. It deals with the British North America Act and the division of powers between the Federal Government and the provinces. It treats of the three traditional functions of all governments—legislative, judicial and executive. Those parts of the pamphlet dealing with the Senate and the House of Commons serve as a useful introduction to the second pamphlet projected for this series, *How Parliament Works.*

These pamphlets contain the minimum that every Canadian ought to know about his government. The information they contain is essential for an understanding of one aspect of our way of life. To know what is contained in these pamphlets is to be aware, at least in part, of one side of the issues that are before us in the struggle for men's minds. Service personnel should not be in doubt about the cause they have enlisted to support. By reading these pamphlets they can equip themselves with a knowledge of our democratic system of government. Discussion leaders should make every effort to ensure that the men in their groups are fully acquainted with this material.

HARRY R. LOW
Director, Bureau of Current Affairs

The Canadian Constitution

By Brigadier W. J. Lawson, Q.C., Judge Advocate General of the Canadian Forces.

The Canadian Constitution is a somewhat hybrid growth. It is an attempt — the first one ever made — to combine the principles of responsible government with federal organization. Responsible government is, of course, derived from the mother country, Great Britain. Federal government on a large scale was first tried in the great republic south of us, the United States. Canada's constitution draws to some extent on both sources but is based largely on the British example.

Federal government is a government in which the sovereign powers are divided between a central government and local governments; for example, the Federal Government and the provincial governments. It is of the essence of federal government that the local governments are completely sovereign within their field and cannot be interfered with in that field by the federal government. This distinguishes local governments from, for example, municipal governments which, although they may have fairly substantial law-making powers, simply exercise those powers as a delegate of some sovereign legislative body —in Canada the provincial legislatures. We must always remember that the provincial governments in Canada are

just as sovereign, and just as powerful within their own fields and when operating within their jurisdiction under the British North America Act, as is the Federal Government itself.

The Canadian constitution although partly written in the British North America Act is very largely based on conventions and usages inherited from Great Britain, the enforcement of which is dependent upon the rule of law. A reading of the British North America Act itself would convey to a foreigner not familiar with British constitutional principles a completely erroneous idea as to how Canada is governed. For example, the British North America Act provides that the whole executive government and authority in Canada is vested in the Queen who is represented by a Governor General appointed by her. The Governor General is assisted by a council which he chooses, summons and removes and which advises him in his work. He is Commander-in-Chief of all the naval, army and air forces of Canada. He appoints the judges, the Speaker of the Senate and the Lieutenant-Governors of the provinces. He appoints all the members of one House of the legislature, i.e. the Senate, and these members hold office for life. The other House, that is, the House of Commons, is called together by the Governor General and can be dissolved by him at any time. All Bills relating to the expenditure of money must be recommended by the Governor General before they can be passed by Parliament. No Act of Parliament can become law unless the Governor General assents thereto and he may disallow any provincial act. Similar

general powers are exercisable in the provinces by the Lieutenant-Governors. A foreigner reading this Act would inevitably come to the conclusion that Canada suffers under an iron dictatorship, the autocratic rule of one central figure who governs Canada with little reference to, or control by, the people.

It is the unwritten portion of the constitution which gives the real clue as to how Canada is governed. Under it the Governor General does not act according to his own judgement but on the advice of his Council. That Council is not the Council mentioned in the British North America Act but only a part of the Council acting in the name of the whole. This active part of the Council is the Cabinet, a body not mentioned anywhere in the Act. The Cabinet is chosen by the Prime Minister who himself is not mentioned in the Act. The Prime Minister and his Cabinet must always have the support of the House of Commons; all members of the Cabinet must have seats in that House or in the Senate and most of the Cabinet are executive heads of Departments of the Government. It is this fact of responsible government that gives you the real key as to how Canada is governed. Everything is done in the name of the Queen, but only by permission of the elected representatives of the people.

The Constitution

The Source of Authority in the Democratic State



Broadly speaking there are two main systems of government, arbitrary government, or dictatorship, and constitutional government. The essence of constitutional government is the fact that the political authority in the state is exercised according to established rules and procedures. These rules and procedures are the constitution, or the fundamental law. These fundamental principles, or constitutions, can be of vastly different nature and make up. They can be set forth in a formal written document as in the constitution of the United States, which is the legal source of all authority in that country, or they may be nothing more than a flexible collection of legal rules and conventions as is the unwritten constitution of Great Britain.

The written form of constitution is the more easily understood for it exists in documentary form. In the United States the document is called "The Constitution of the United States of America". With the successful revolt of the American colonies against British rule it was necessary to unite these 13 separate colonies into a single political unit, and to this end delegates from

each colony met and agreed to certain fundamental principles according to which they considered their new nation should be constituted. Thus the participating states delegated power to the new central government. The United States chose to have their constitution guarantee a large measure of authority to the individual states and to place certain checks on the new Federal Government as a precaution against its gaining too much power. The constitution states in detail what may be done by the Federal and state governments and makes the Supreme Court of the United States the final arbiter on the legality of action of both federal and state legislatures. This type of constitution is inflexible and may be changed only with the consent of the individual states which make up the federation.

The constitution of Great Britain on the other hand is not contained in any one single document called the British Constitution. It is the system of government which actually exists. The form and constitutional procedures of the British government are a mixture of legal rules and customary practices which have gradually evolved during the growth of the British state. The particular feature of the British situation which made possible this loose and changing type of constitutional practice was the fact that it was a unitary state with

one central government authority. Hence, there was no problem of uniting individual states under a central authority and considering any division of powers. The British Parliament is the supreme authority in the state. It can change the British constitution by ordinary Act of Parliament.

The Nature of the Canadian Constitution — In examining the nature of the Canadian constitution there are two important considerations which must be kept in mind. The first is that the Canadian constitution is a mixture of the United States and British types of constitution. We have a document, the British North America Act, which looks like the American constitution but was drafted with the intention of setting up a form of government similar to that of Great Britain. The British North America Act was primarily concerned with the union of the three British North American colonies and is essentially a legal statement of the terms and conditions of the union. It contains almost nothing on the important question of how the Federal and provincial governments were to function except to indicate that constitutional practices similar in principle to those of the United Kingdom were to be adopted. The reason for this vagueness was that the system of responsible government was fairly well established and understood

in the colonies by 1867 and because much of the system was founded on convention and practice which it was considered impossible to define in the statute. Also, such action would destroy the flexibility inherent in British constitutional practices. The British North America Act was designed to be chiefly a definition of federal relations and the British parliamentary principles were intended to be read into the Act as required.

The second consideration to be taken into account is the comparatively recent development of Canadian autonomy or national status. In 1867, the over-riding authority of the British Parliament was expected to continue, and it was understood that the exercise of royal power in Canada, as in the field of foreign relations and treaty-making powers, would continue to be exercised by British ministers, not by Canadian. But this has changed completely. No British legislation is now made for Canada except when specifically requested and no British officials have any influence on Canadian internal or external affairs. Many of the provisions of the British North America Act which were appropriate for the colonial era are now outmoded yet few formal changes have been made in the Act by amendment. Most of the advance in status towards Canadian nationhood has been by the alteration of usage and conventions which is the British means of constitutional development.

The Written Constitution

The British North America Act, 1867 — It seems to have been the intention of those who drafted the Act that Canada should have a strong federal government and that the governments of the provinces would control local and minor affairs. There were good reasons for this. The American Civil War had indicated the danger inherent in a federal system which gave wide powers to the individual states. The economic difficulties resulting from British free trade practices and the termination of reciprocity with the United States demanded a strong central government. So did the defence of the colonies. Both the Charlottetown and Quebec Conferences were clear on this feature.

The British North America Act originally contained 147 sections divided topically into 11 main parts not including the preamble. The matters covered by these portions are briefly as follows:—

Parts 1 and 2—These identify the Act and set forth the names of the four original provinces in the Union — Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. The decennial census was provided for.

Part 3: Executive Power—The Governor General was to exercise the executive power in the manner of the British Crown in the United Kingdom. He was to

be assisted or advised by a Privy Council of his own choosing. The British Sovereign was to be the Commander-in-Chief of the Canadian Armed Forces.

Part 4: Legislative Power—The Canadian parliament was to consist of a Senate and House of Commons. The constitution and procedure of the legislative bodies, qualifications and privileges of their members were described. Readjustment of representation was to be made each 10 years. The Commons could not pass money bills unless they were recommended by the Governor General. The British government could disallow any Canadian legislation within two years of receipt.

Part 5: Provincial Constitutions—Provincial legislatures in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were already in being but provision had to be made for the establishment of legislatures in the new provinces of Ontario and Quebec. The existing laws were to continue in force. Lieutenant-Governors in the provinces were to be appointed with powers parallel in general to those of the Governor General.

Part 6: Distribution of Legislative Powers—This is the most important section of the Act as it deals with the allocation of authority between the Federal and provincial governments. This division of powers is the essence of federation and the area of constant friction between the two legislating authorities.

Part 7: Judicature — The selection, appointment and tenure of judges in all courts were described and provision was made for a general court of appeal, the Supreme Court of Canada, to be established.

Part 8: Revenue, Debts, Assets, Taxation—A Consolidated Revenue Fund was to be established and the Dominion was to take over provincial debts with certain reservations. Rates of federal grants to the provinces were detailed and it was provided that the existing Customs and Excise laws should continue in force. Public lands and mines were assigned to the provinces.

Part 9: Miscellaneous Provisions—These provided for the continuance of existing law courts and officers. The use of the English and French languages in Parliament was guaranteed and treaty-making power of colonial nature only was extended.

Part 10: Intercolonial Railway—This was repealed in 1893.

Part 11: Admission of Other Colonies—Provision was made for admission into the federation of Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland, British Columbia and Prince Rupert's Land and Northwest Territory, at the request of both the Colonies and the Dominion. The representation to be given these areas in event of entry was laid down here.

The provisions of Part II were soon exercised and the number of provinces has increased from the original four to the present ten, several of these by Order-in-Council. Prince Rupert Land and the Northwest Territories were admitted in 1870, British Columbia in 1871, Prince Edward Island in 1873 and Newfoundland in 1949. The three Western Provinces were created by Dominion statutes: Manitoba in 1870, Saskatchewan and Alberta in 1905.

Conventions and Usage—The British North America Act set up the new federal state and defined the division of authority between the central and provincial governments, but it gave little direction as to how the parliamentary systems in either the federal or provincial areas were to operate. The Act did declare that the British constitutional practices and existing laws were to continue in the colony. This sweeping provision encompassed the enormous collection of British parliamentary practices, conventions and usage which were destined to form an important part of Canadian constitutional practice. While a full description of these cannot be attempted, some of the important elements of the unwritten constitution are: (1) responsible government, i.e., the control of the executive by the House of Commons; (2) political parties

which, though not even mentioned in the written constitution, are the most active elements in our political life—it is likely that our system of government could not operate without them; (3) the British rule of law which receives no mention in the Act but is no less an important feature of the Canadian constitutional practice than in the United Kingdom; (4) the royal prerogative or the power to do such things as declare war, make treaties and appoint ambassadors—functions now exercised by the Canadian Government.

Canada and the Provinces — The government of Canada is based on a federal system. A federal system implies a grouping of local governing units (provinces) having a certain amount of self-government with a general government of the whole nation controlling matters of vital interest to all. It is a system of division of power and requires for its successful operation discussion, co-operation and a certain amount of give and take. We are lucky to have inherited this type of government which is acceptable to our natures rather than a dictatorial type. The federal principle is not merely suitable for Canada, it is a necessity. The cleavage of race, language and religion, together with the divergence of sectional economy and social life make some form of divided government even more imperative today than in 1867. Federalism has

the advantage of providing constitutional machinery for preserving the necessary provincialism while also permitting common action in essential matters. Unity is retained. The distribution of power, however, is a continuing problem.

It must be remembered that the initial BNA Act united Quebec, Ontario, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick and that the other provinces came in separately. This meant joining the Dominion under what might be called different contracts and created different problems regarding distribution of power. One of the very reasons that federalism is needed in this country, namely differences in population, wealth, resources and religion, is also a reason why distribution of power is difficult.

To go into some of the details of division of power let us look at Section 91 of the BNA Act which lists Dominion powers. Section 91 first gives Parliament a general power "to make laws for the peace, order and good government of Canada, in relation to all matters not coming within the classes of subjects by this Act assigned exclusively to the legislatures of the provinces". From this immediately comes the question as to whether a certain subject which at first sight would appear to be within provincial jurisdiction does not transcend the same and fall under Parliament's authority. It then gives a list of classes of subjects over which Parliament has exclusive authority. This list is given only for greater certainty and not to restrict the scope of the general power previously mentioned. The list contains 29 classes of Dominion matters such as regulation of

trade and commerce, defence, currency, raising money by any mode or system of taxes, postal services, navigation and shipping and weights and measures. Think of the confusion that would have resulted if each province had its own money, its own weights and measures and its own armed forces.

Section 92 assigns 16 powers to the provinces, including amendment of the provincial constitution (except the office of the Lieutenant-Governor), direct taxation in the province for provincial purposes, the management and sale of public lands and timber belonging to the province, laws relating to municipal institutions and property and civil rights within the province.

In agriculture and immigration Canada and the provinces have concurrent powers but the law of the former prevails in case of conflict.

Education was considered so important, that the whole of Section 93 was devoted to it. This section confers upon the Dominion Parliament limited legislative authority over education, for the protection of minority rights with respect to denominational, separate or dissentient schools. The provinces have exclusive power to legislate in the matter subject to these reservations.

Most of the difficulties that have arisen between Federal and provincial governments have been the result of new conditions naturally unforeseen at Confederation, judicial interpretations of Section 91 which, from 1867 to 1945, tended to extend provincial powers and restrict those of the Dominion (except in time of war) or continual increases in needs for taxing powers by the

Dominion and the provinces. These increases have been required because the people have demanded expensive services such as pensions, unemployment insurance, health insurance, etc. The provinces being limited to direct taxes have continually to meet competition from the Federal Government which has invaded these fields as it is entitled to do.

Many of these difficulties, such as family allowances and unemployment insurance, have been solved by agreement but there are still many others to face before, for instance, a national health scheme can be properly set up.

The constitution makers of 1867 probably thought the provisions of the Act were so definite and precise that it would supply complete guidance for the future. Yet the construction to be placed on the written words has given rise to innumerable legal disputes, parliamentary discussions, royal commission inquiries and Dominion-Provincial Conferences without really clarifying the position or resolving the difficulties. The misuse of many political terms and the prevalence of historical misconceptions have kept alive the controversy, while political pressures and legal distortions have added to the general confusion.

Legislative, Judicial and Executive Powers

It has been established that the nature of the Canadian constitution was directly affected by both the parent British Government and that of the neighbouring United States of America. A more remote but nevertheless real and basic influence was that of 18th century lawyers and philosophers, who are commonly credited with having greatly influenced the framers of the American constitution. The French philosopher Montesquieu, the English philosopher Locke and the English jurist Blackstone may be particularly mentioned in this regard.

These men, in their theoretical writing on the democratic form of government, divided the functions of government into three separate and distinct branches: (1) the legislative branch which makes the laws; (2) the executive which carries out the laws and (3) the judiciary which interprets the laws in case of doubt or dispute.

The U.S. Government Organization—In 1787 when the United States constitution was framed, the ideas expounded by the philosophers were very highly regarded. As a result, the government of the United States is composed of three distinct and separate bodies with, theoretically, entirely different functions. It is instructive to

examine this arrangement with a view to comparison with our own, the general form of which was evolved some 80 years later. In broad outline it is as follows:—

The President — The President is the chief executive. He is assisted in his duties by a Cabinet of his own choosing. He is responsible only to the people who elected him and the members of his Cabinet are responsible only to him. The President and his Cabinet are independent of Congress.

The Congress—The Congress, comprising the Senate and the House of Representatives, is the legislative body. Its members are elected by the people for a specific term of office. The Congress is all powerful within the scope defined by the Constitution, and the President's veto can be over-ridden by a two-thirds majority.

The Supreme Court — The Supreme Court is the chief judicial body. It is composed of a group of distinguished judges who are appointed for life by the President with the concurrence of the Senate. The Court has the power to decide, when called upon to do so, whether legislation passed by Congress or by a State Legislature is within the powers (*intra vires*) or outside the powers (*ultra vires*) conferred by the constitution. It also interprets the wording of the constitution when called upon to do so. As may be seen, it is a very powerful force and can nullify the wishes of the President and of Congress, if a majority of the Court finds a proposed law *ultra vires*.

This rigid separation of powers in the United States plan constituted a great modern experiment in democratic government. Several features, however, did not appeal to the Fathers of Confederation, who decided on a rather different form of organization. The main faults found with the United States plan may be stated briefly as follows:—

(*a*) The President had power only to recommend legislation, or to veto legislation which he did not favour. This often meant deadlock when President and Congress did not agree.

(*b*) Congressional elections every two years, with little done during the last few months of the term, made for ineffectual government (the so-called "lame duck" session which was abolished in 1933).

(*c*) Members of the Cabinet could not sit in Congress, although they could be summoned before its committees to answer questions. They were certainly not leaders of the House, and frequently were of a political party entirely opposed to the majority of the legislators.

(*d*) The President was a very powerful figure. He was Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces in time of war, and was permitted by the constitution to carry out policies as he saw fit. When a well-meaning but weak

President, elected by the people on a domestic issue found himself in the centre of a national emergency, nothing could be done to replace him until his term of office expired.

(*e*) On the death of a President, his successor was the Vice President, usually a "safe" party man nominated because of his ability to "carry" a state or group of states. It was certainly not for his outstanding statesmanship.

In brief, the Canadian views were that the American system was too theoretical, too inflexible and, under certain circumstances, too dangerous to be copied.

British System of Government — At the time of Confederation, the British system of government, while still developing, had become just about as democratic as the American, almost as representative, and much more suited to changing conditions and sudden emergencies. Its chief features were:—

(*a*) Responsibility of the Cabinet to the House of Commons. The Queen's ministers combined the legislative and executive functions; they sat in Parliament and remained in power only so long as the elected House had confidence in them; and the House could throw all of them out of power at a moment's notice when it lost

confidence in any one of them. As a result, cabinet ministers fought legislation through the House or resigned in favour of a ministry that could. They were present in the House daily to explain their actions (and those of the civil service and the armed forces). They were leaders of the legislature, in fact, its executive committee. Moreover, when the House refused to support them, the Prime Minister could recommend that the Queen dissolve Parliament, and hold a new election.

(*b*) The Chief of State was an hereditary Sovereign, above politics, with no need to curry favour in order to win elections, and consequently more inclined to take the long view. She had very little actual power, but served as a social head of the State, the Prime Minister being the actual chief executive. Her power was exerted by personal influence, her actual power having shrunk to the three royal rights: the right to advise, the right to warn and the right to be informed.

The Canadian System—The Fathers of Confederation decided to follow British practice in the organization of the new government. The chief departure from the British model was the Federal organization with its five governments, each functioning pretty much as did the Mother of Parliaments, except that it was restricted in authority by the distribution of powers between the Federal and provincial governments.

There should be little need to state the present organization of the Canadian Government; but perhaps it would be well at least to identify the various bodies with which the powers under discussion rest.

We have then: (1) the Crown, the nominal head of the state, in whose name all authority and acts still rest and the resident representatives of which are the Governor General and the Lieutenant-Governors; (2) the Senate and the House of Commons—the two legislative bodies—members of the former being appointed for life by the Governor General and those of the House of Commons being elected; (3) the Prime Minister and his Cabinet as executive, all of whom are elected as Members of Parliament—leaders of the party in power; they are also the leaders of Parliament and they combine the legislative and executive functions and control the administration of government and (4) the judiciary which is the legal authority.

Notwithstanding the letter of the law as expressed in the British North America Act, executive powers now lie entirely with the Canadian Governments. This is not to say, however, that the influence of the Crown either directly or through the Governor General and Lieutenant-Governors is not still appreciable. Authority has, however, gradually been succeeded by influence, and obvious and aggressive leadership has given way to suggestion and persuasion.

Legislative Powers—Over the years there has been an appreciable shift of legislative powers from the Federal Government to the provincial governments. A series of rulings by the Privy Council has had the effect of creating a much more even balance of power between the central government and the provinces than had been intended by the Fathers of Confederation. Recent signs suggest a possible reversal of this trend.

The Judiciary—There is a significant difference in the character of the judicial system from that of the other elements of government. In the judicial field the federal principle is almost completely lacking. It is true that there are both Federal and provincial courts; but their functional chart is a vertical one, forming virtually a single unit. This makes for a simple and effective system, little troubled by conflicts.

By the terms of the British North America Act the Dominion is empowered to create a general court of appeal and to establish "any additional courts for the better administration of the laws of Canada". The province has jurisdiction over "the administration of justice in the province, including the constitution, maintenance, and organization of provincial courts, both of civil and criminal jurisdiction, and including procedure in civil matters in these courts". Procedure in criminal matters is under Federal control, as is also control of appointments, remuneration and, if necessary, the removal of the judges of both Federal and provincial courts (with a few minor exceptions). Thus a single system

of courts enforces both Federal and provincial law in each province.

Until recently the highest court was the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, an Empire Court. It is now replaced by the Supreme Court of Canada, a Federal court. Using Ontario courts as typical of the provincial courts we have: (a) the Supreme Court of Ontario—a provincial court with Federal appointment and payment of judges—which is divided into two sections, the Court of Appeal for Ontario and the High Court of Justice for Ontario; (b) the County Courts, which are provincial courts the judges of which are appointed and paid by the Federal Government; (c) the Surrogate Courts which exist in every county for dealing with the estates of deceased persons; (d) the Division Courts—as many as 12 to a county—which hear minor personal actions; (e) the Magistrates' Courts, of which there are many, for the trial of designated minor criminal offences and a few civil cases such as those under the Landlord and Tenant Act; (f) other courts such as Coroners' Courts and Juvenile Courts.

The Supreme Court of Canada hears appeals only, although it may, at the request of the government, rule on the legality of an Act. The judges are appointed by the Governor-in-Council and hold office only during good behaviour.

There is another Federal court, the Exchequer Court of Canada, which is not a fully integrated part of the system. Its members are appointed by the Governor-in-Council and hold office during good behaviour. This

court deals with such cases as claims against the Crown, patents, etc. It has original jurisdiction.

Administrative Powers — The administrative powers have assumed an increasing importance in recent years. This is because the government has become far more active in the economic and social fields, such as public health, housing, employment, standard of living, etc. This trend seems likely to continue and to grow even more rapidly in the future.

The powers delegated by statute to the administration include those to enact subordinate legislation by order-in-council or departmental regulation and those to render judicial decisions in disputes arising in regard to administrative questions, where there is little or no opportunity for appeal to the courts.

Power to enact subsidiary legislation within the statutes can be delegated by Parliament to individuals or to a board or commission. Delegation of both kinds is extremely common (over one-half of the 225 public Acts in force in 1933) and it has tended to increase in recent years.

Some of these delegated powers go so far as to give the power to vary the provisions or to extend the scope of the Act in important respects. The most extreme example of such a delegation of power was the War Measures Act, which gave authority to the Governor-in-Council to make such orders and regulations as he "may deem necessary or advisable for the security, defence, peace, order and welfare of Canada". This was

to continue for as long as the war emergency lasted. With this went the authority to re-delegate powers, including the power of delegation itself.

This feature of delegated powers would seem both necessary and acceptable "in an emergency". It becomes somewhat controversial when applied "outside of an emergency", or when it comes to deciding when an emergency is in existence or has passed.

Judicial powers may also be delegated in some instances, such as in the case of the Canadian Pension Commission. The more common delegation is that of quasi-judicial functions involving the exercise of official discretion. This permits the administration of a statute to be effectively tied-in with its interpretation, and gives it flexibility and quick adaptability.

In the majority of cases of delegation of discretionary powers, the decision of the administrative officials (on behalf of the Minister) is final. Should, however, the questions be purely judicial in nature, appeal to the courts may be permitted. In the same manner, where a decision hinges on a matter of public policy, an administrative appeal court may be used.

There is obviously an appreciable element of danger in the erection of barriers between the citizen and the courts of justice. The willingness of the Cabinet Minister to accept responsibility may not always prove a satisfactory substitute for the normal safeguard provided by the courts, and it is possible that more consideration may have to be given to this question in the future.

The Senate

The Queen, through her representative, the Governor General, the Senate and the House of Commons constitute the Parliament of Canada. The consent of all three is necessary to pass legislation.

The Senate possesses legal power almost equal to that of the House of Commons, and is in theory an independent legislative body; it is in actual practice a minor partner in the legislature. Three constitutional arrangements emphasize this fact, the first two explicit, and the third unwritten. These three arrangements are: (1) that only the House of Commons is based on popular election; (2) that the House of Commons has the sole power to originate money bills and (3) that the Cabinet is held responsible to the House of Commons and not to the Upper House.

The main function and duties of the Senate are: (1) to act as a revising and restraining body and (2) to protect the interest of the provinces and minority racial, religious and language groups. The Senate participates in legislative work by consideration of measures after they have passed the Commons and it can propose amendments to, or even reject, a bill. Adequate consideration of bills is made difficult by their late arrival from the Commons, usually in the closing days of the Session. The Senate has never taken the position that its power of rejection or amendment to a bill is absolute

and independent of public opinion. In 1926, the Senate rejected the Old Age Pension Bill, and yet a short time later passed the Bill, after the Government having this proposal in its platform was re-elected. Thus, when a clear mandate of the people is expressed the Senate will not oppose it.

The Senate does some of its most useful work in consideration of private bills. The object of a private bill is to alter the law relating to some particular locality, or to confer rights on, or relieve from liability, some particular person or body of persons. In practice, nearly all private bills now originate in the Senate. The Senate, aside from its revising power, and its useful participation in the passage of private bills, has been successful in conducting investigations into current political or social problems, a most fruitful field for its endeavours.

It must be admitted that the Senate at the present time is looked upon as a sort of fifth wheel. We must however, in all fairness to it, point out several handicaps imposed upon it. The first is the method of appointment, which sometimes results in a partisan attitude. Senatorships are regarded as the choicest political plums in the patronage basket. The second handicap is the life term which results in an unfavourable age distribution. The third is that it is remote from the political struggle or, should we say, is not active in the day-to-day political life of the nation—thus nothing but the excellence of its activities will rally support from the public. Finally, insufficient work is supplied it, especially in the early days of the Session. Bills from the Commons are usually passed

to the Senate in the closing days of the Session. The practice recently introduced, of permitting Ministers to speak in the Senate, will result in more bills being introduced there and thus give it more work in the early days of the Session.

The House of Commons is the real centre of parliamentary authority and exercises a preponderant influence in the government. It is the organized medium through which the public will finds expression and exercises its ultimate political power. It forms the indispensable part of the legislature and it is the body to which the executive must turn for justification and approval. It is based on popular election and, basically, representation by population determines the number of seats allotted to each province, with provision for adjustment after each decennial census.

The House of Commons is not properly constituted until it has elected a Speaker. The Speaker presides over all meetings of the House and must decide all points of order that arise.

The Clerk of the House keeps a scroll of the actual business transacted on each day. From that, the journals of the House are made up, and these are the official records of the House (not *Hansard*).

The Sergeant-at-Arms is responsible for maintenance of order by all who attend parliamentary Sessions and for all movable property within the House.

The procedures of the House are governed by what is known as "Standing Orders of the House". They might be described as statutes of parliamentary procedure, and govern the members' conduct in the House.

Committees perform an important work in the business of the House. They are, standing committees, special committees, or sessional committees, and probably the most important one is the Committee of the Whole House. The special function of this committee is the discussion of details. It functions in three capacities: (1) as a Committee of Supply, dealing with votes and grants for expenditures; (2) a Committee of Ways and Means, dealing with raising of money and (3) as a Committee of the Whole House in consideration of money and public bills, discussing them clause by clause.

The basic procedure in the passage of bills is that they receive three readings in the House of Commons, and three in the Senate and then go to the Governor General for his signature. Bills are classified as public and private but different procedures are followed in the passage of these different kinds of bills through Parliament.

Public Bills—A public bill is introduced as a measure of public policy in which the whole country is interested. Its sponsor in Parliament, usually a Cabinet member, must give 48 hours notice that he intends to introduce

this bill. On moving for leave to introduce it he may give a few words of explanation but no discussion is allowed at that time. If no one objects, the Speaker declares the motion carried and a motion for first reading follows immediately, but no debate follows. If no objections are made, the second reading of the bill is usually ordered for the next sitting of the House though the bill may be killed by a motion that it be withdrawn or that the second reading be postponed for a term beyond the probable duration of the Session. This latter procedure is known as "the six months hoist". At the second reading it is proper to discuss and propose a motion relative to the principle of the measure. Clauses of the bill may be referred to but may not be amended. When the bill has been read a second time it is referred to a committee which reports amendments to the House. The bill is now open for debate and amendment. Should there be no amendments the third reading may take place immediately and motion be introduced to pass the bill. The third reading is open to debate. The bill may be amended by being referred back to the Committee of the Whole and sometimes it is amended to such an extent that even its title has to be changed in Committee. The third reading, like the second, may be postponed with the object of killing the bill.

Private Bills — The object of a private bill is "to alter the law relating to some particular locality or to confer rights on, or relieve from liability, some particular person or body of persons". In practice all private bills

originate in the Senate though they may originate in the House of Commons too. The procedure followed is partly legislative and partly judicial but, as with public bills, there are three readings. A private bill originates in a petition presented by its promoter and a fee—$200 if the bill originates in the Senate, $500 if in the House of Commons—must be paid. Plans and maps, where necessary, must accompany the bill and notices of intention must be advertised. If the Committee on Standing Orders finds that all the formalities have been complied with the bill is read the first and second time in the same way as a public bill. It is then referred to a Standing Committee of the Senate which holds hearings at which counter-petitions may be presented and at which counsel for both sides are heard. In this respect, something approaching a judicial inquiry takes place. When the Standing Committee reports to the Senate its recommendations are usually accepted and the bill is read a third time and sent to the House of Commons.

The advantage in giving the Senate a preference in dealing with these bills is that private bills (which under standing orders must always be presented early in the Session) can be conveniently considered by the Senate in the long interval when it is awaiting the public bills which are to be sent up by the Commons.

Some Functions of the House of Commons — The House of Commons is a legislative body, therefore, its function is to pass legislation. True, but what else does it accomplish and how?

The House gives guidance, encouragement, advice and support to a Government, as well as disparagement and criticism. A companion function to this is that of educating and leading public opinion on many questions. It will discuss, argue, investigate, oppose, decide and postpone action on many questions on which the voters have no certain convictions and on which they need further information or guidance.

One of its major functions is to criticize. Here the nature of participation by the individual depends on party affiliations. If he is a majority member, he can make himself heard in the Government caucus; if he belongs to the Opposition, he can voice his criticisms of measures when they are before the House. To forestall opposition criticism the Cabinet will draft its proposals in the most innocuous terms possible.

Another vital function of the House is the power of general supervision. The House asks Ministers many questions relating to their departments. It draws the activities of the Government into the light of publicity.

Finally, the House of Commons is a selective body. It provides the rigorous environment in which Ministerial talent must prove its worth and establish its right to office, as the prospective Minister usually serves an apprenticeship in the House.

In concluding, we can say the House of Commons is the supreme political agency of the Canadian people. It controls, in the last resort, all branches, legislative, executive and judicial. No government can continue in

existence without the support of the majority of its members. The powers which it exercises under the BNA Act, as well as those it has assumed on other authority are derived from its unquestioned pre-eminence as the agent of the Canadian people. It is primarily a representative body and its problems have been directly or indirectly concerned with the effort to secure an adequate expression of public opinion.

The British constitution is flexible and has grown into its present form over the centuries. As the poet Tennyson said, "Britain is the land where freedom slowly broadens down from precedent to precedent". The Canadian constitution is also capable of growth and has, since Confederation, changed year by year to fit new conditions and Canada's new status as a nation. That part of the Canadian constitution, however, that is written in the British North America Act cannot grow or change, but must be amended by formal act of a legislative body. The Act was written in 1867 when conditions both in Canada and the world were vastly different from what they are today. The Act urgently requires amendment. One of the major problems facing the governments of Canada and of the provinces is to evolve a method by which the Act can be made flexible and capable of being changed with the changing times.

Governors General of Canada, Since Confederation

Name	*Date of Appointment*
Viscount Monck, G.C.M.G.	1867
Lord Lisgar, G.C.M.G.	1868
The Earl of Dufferin, K.P., K.C.B., G.C.M.G.	1872
The Marquis of Lorne, K.T., G.C.M.G.	1878
The Marquis of Lansdowne, G.C.M.G.	1883
Lord Stanley of Preston, G.C.B.	1888
The Earl of Aberdeen, K.T., G.C.M.G.	1893
The Earl of Minto, G.C.M.G.	1898
Earl Grey, G.C.M.G.	1904
Field Marshal H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught, K.G.	1911
The Duke of Devonshire, K.G., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O.	1916
General The Lord Byng of Vimy, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., M.V.O.	1921
Viscount Willingdon of Ratton, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.B.E.	1926
The Earl of Bessborough, G.C.M.G.	1931
Lord Tweedsmuir of Elsfield, G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., C.H.	1935
Major-General The Earl of Athlone, K.G., P.C., G.C.B., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., D.S.O.	1940
Field Marshal Viscount Alexander of Tunis, K.G., G.C.B., G.C.M.G., C.S.I., D.S.O., M.C., LL.D., A.D.C.	1945
The Right Honourable Vincent Massey, C.H., P.C.	1952

Prime Ministers Since Confederation

Name	*Length of Administration*
Rt. Hon. Sir John Alexander MacDonald	1867 - 1873
Hon. Alexander MacKenzie	1873 - 1878
Rt. Hon. Sir John Alexander MacDonald	1878 - 1891
Hon. Sir John Joseph Caldwell Abbott	1891 - 1892
Rt. Hon. Sir John Sparrow David Thompson	1892 - 1894
Hon. Sir MacKenzie Bowell	1894 - 1896
Hon. Charles Tupper	1896 - 1896
Rt. Hon. Sir Wilfrid Laurier	1896 - 1911
Rt. Hon. Sir Robert Laird Borden	1911 - 1920
Rt. Hon. Arthur Meighen	1920 - 1921
Rt. Hon. William Lyon MacKenzie King	1921 - 1926
Rt. Hon. Arthur Meighen	1926 - 1926
Rt. Hon. William Lyon MacKenzie King	1926 - 1930
Rt. Hon. Richard Bedford Bennett	1930 - 1935
Rt. Hon. William Lyon MacKenzie King	1935 - 1948
Rt. Hon. Louis Stephen St. Laurent	1948 - .....

How to use this . . . PAMPHLET

THE CANADIAN CONSTITUTION

This is Article No. 1 in the CITIZENSHIP SERIES of CURRENT AFFAIRS Pamphlets.

Read this pamphlet carefully several times and make notes. Underline those points you particularly wish to stress. In making notes keep in mind the main purpose of the discussion topic.

I. PURPOSE:—

The purpose of this discussion topic is to show the structure of the Canadian government and how it works.

II. DISCUSSION HOUR PLAN:—

It is essential that your Discussion Hour be planned around an outline. It is better if you construct your own but you might follow the form suggested below. There are different methods of conducting the Discussion Hour such as the conference, the committee and the panel methods. The form of outline below is used in the conference method.

1. **Introduction** (2-3 minutes):—
   i. Mention news events connected with this topic.
   ii. Relate this topic to other topics in the Current Affairs series, e.g., *Electing an American President* by G. W. Brown and G. E. Craig.

2. **Leader's Presentation** (15-20 minutes):—
   (Write main points on the blackboard.)
   i. The federal character of the Canadian constitution.
   ii. British and American principles in the Canadian constitution.
   iii. The British North America Act—the foundation of the Canadian constitution.
   iv. Division of powers between the Federal Government and the provinces.
   v. The legislative, judicial and administrative powers of government.
   vi. The Senate and the House of Commons and their functions.

3. **Discussion Questions** (30-35 minutes):—
   The following questions have been prepared but they are intended as samples only. You should make your own questions.

i. What changes in the Canadian constitution since 1867 have arisen from the growth and development of Canada?

ii. Along what lines is the Canadian constitution likely to develop in the future?

iii. Is a federal form of government preferable to a unitary form (such as that of the United Kingdom, France or Italy) in a country the size of Canada?

iv. What has been the purpose of Dominion-Provincial Conferences in recent years and what has been the outcome?

4. **Summary:—**

i. Summarize the main points brought out in the Discussion Hour, keeping in mind the purpose of this discussion topic as stated above.

ii. Announce the topic for next week and suggest available references, particularly previous Current Affairs pamphlets.

III. **AND REMEMBER . . .**

1. The Discussion Hour should be held in a room that is physically comfortable.

2. Make sure you have the right kind of equipment in the right place before you need it:—
   i. blackboard, chalk and eraser in the room where the discussion is to take place;
   ii. reference books, periodicals, etc., in the Unit Library;
   iii. suitable projector, screen, films and filmstrips which you may be able to obtain, maps and charts.
3. Keep the size of your group to less than thirty.
4. Make constant use of any available visual aids.
5. Use notes if you must, but you will be more effective without them.
6. Do not read to your group.
7. Ample opportunity must be given for all-round discussion. The Discussion Hour is not a question-answer period.
8. Do not let one or two individuals monopolize the whole of the time.
9. Remind the group when necessary, to keep to the matter under discussion.
10. Ask questions of individuals and encourage spontaneous contributions.

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- **The scale of issue** for Current Affairs pamphlets is one per officer.

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DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA — CANADA

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FOR THE CANADIAN FORCES

Government
Publications

The second of a series of pamphlets on Canadian Citizenship by outstanding authorities, prepared especially for the Armed Forces by the Bureau of Current Affairs.

How Parliament Works

By E. R. Hopkins

BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, CANADA

INTRODUCTION

In a foreword to the first of the regular series of Current Affairs pamphlets issued in October, 1951, the Minister of National Defence, the Hon. Brooke Claxton, stated that service personnel "should know as much as possible about Canada . . .".

Accordingly, the Bureau of Current Affairs has initiated a series of citizenship pamphlets of which this one, *How Parliament Works*, is the second. It explains how laws are made and the procedure through which a bill must go before it becomes an Act. Necessarily it deals to some extent with the rules of debate, rules which may at first glance appear somewhat complicated but which have been tested by time and found to be the most efficient in the conduct of the nation's business.

The material contained in this pamphlet supplements the material in the first of the series which deals with the Canadian constitution as a whole. Taken together these two pamphlets summarize our democratic system of government—the system in which Canadians believe and which Canadian service personnel are pledged to defend.

HARRY R. LOW
Director, Bureau of Current Affairs

An Examination of the Functioning of the Parliament of Canada

by E. R. HOPKINS

How Parliament Works

The Parliament of Canada, as it has functioned in recent years, is a hard-working institution. Though cynical views to the contrary are sometimes heard, individual Members of Parliament are themselves industrious. Parliament accomplishes its objectives. Every ordinary Session begins with a great deal of projected public business, most of it foreshadowed in the Speech from the Throne, and ends with little of it unfinished. By the time of prorogation, a mass of legislation has been added to the statute books; funds have been provided to meet the estimated expenditures for the fiscal year; Ministers have declared and discussed government policies and measures; and Opposition Members have taken advantage of the numerous occasions on which grievances may be aired and government policies and measures discussed and criticized, and have also, as Members of Parliament, played a constructive part in the law-making process.

Edward Russell Hopkins, formerly Deputy Clerk of the House of Commons from 1949 to 1952, is now Secretary to the Board of Transport Commissioners.

The Work of Parliament

A casual visitor to the Galleries, during an uninspiring debate in the House, might perhaps observe a small attendance on the part of the Members and so reach unflattering conclusions about the efficiency of Parliament. But the work of Parliament must be viewed week by week, or month by month, not hour by hour. The same casual visitor need only follow an average Member for a full working week or attend the proceedings of the House continuously for a week or month to discover that his first impressions were misleading. A Member must attend the daily sittings of the House with reasonable regularity; minister faithfully to the needs, and often the whims, of his constituents; study proposed government measures, receive delegations, attend party caucuses, study groups, political gatherings and meetings of parliamentary committees, as well as discharge a variety of other social and political obligations. If the Member is a Minister or a Parliamentary Assistant, and so additionally responsible for the formulation and administration of government policies, or is the Leader of the Opposition or of one of the other Opposition groups, or is a party "whip", the demands upon his time are correspondingly increased.

No Member of Parliament does all these things all the time, but few can afford to be indifferent to their

duties as elected representatives of the people. Nearly every Member is understandably solicitous of his political prestige; he wants to be re-elected, to advance within the ranks of his party, and in general to be smiled upon by the powers-that-be. Certainly, a close observer of the first three Sessions of the Twenty-first Parliament could hardly fail to acquire respect both for the institution of Parliament and for the industry it collectively represents.

If further evidence is needed, it might be recalled that Parliament was sitting for ten months in the twelve-month period which began in September, 1949, and that during the emergency Session called in September, 1950, to consider measures to deal with the strike of railway employees and the North Korean problem, the House sat three times daily, including Saturdays, from the beginning to the end of the Session. By the end of 1952, there will have been at least six Sessions of the present Parliament, an average of two in each year.

It remains to consider in order: first, what Parliament *is*; then what Parliament is supposed to do; and finally, how Parliament does it.

What is Parliament? Happily it is unnecessary to indulge in romantic speculation on this question. The British North America Act states that Parliament is a trinity; it is the Queen *and* the Senate *and* the House

of Commons. Accordingly, every Act of Parliament of Canada formally begins: "Her Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate and House of Commons of Canada in Parliament assembled".

The Queen—The prerogative powers of the Queen are exercised in Canada by or on behalf of the Queen's representative, the Governor General, who also exercises on Her Majesty's behalf the command-in-chief of the Canadian armed forces. The Governor General's powers and duties are derived from Letters Patent revised and re-issued by King George VI in October, 1947. These powers are of course exercised only on the advice of Canadian Ministers, and indeed the Letters Patent themselves were recommended to the late King George by the Government of Canada and countersigned by the Prime Minister. The Crown has long since ceased to have anything other than a formal voice in legislation. It is true that, in theory and under the British North America Act, the Governor General may withhold assent to legislation passed by the Commons and Senate, or that he may reserve it "for the signification of the Royal pleasure". However, these prerogative powers have not been exercised for more than half a century and may be regarded as constitutionally extinct.

The Senate

The Senate—The Senate is composed of 102 Senators, including 6 new Senators from Newfoundland, appointed by the Governor General under the Great Seal of Canada. Since the Governor General acts on the advice of Canadian Ministers, Senatorial appointments are in fact controlled by the Government. Senators are representative of the following four divisions and Newfoundland: 24 Senators from each of Ontario, Quebec, the Maritimes (10 each from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick and 4 from Prince Edward Island), and Western Canada (6 Senators from each of the Western Provinces). For each of these divisions, other than Quebec, the Senators are appointed "at large": that is, they represent the whole of the territory for which they were appointed. For the Province of Quebec, however, Section 22 of the British North America Act provides that there shall be one Senator for each of the 24 electoral divisions of Lower Canada. All Senators are appointed for life.

Functions of the Senate—It is not within the scope of this pamphlet to discuss the various proposals that have been made for Senate reform. However, the impression should not be left that the Senate is a mere rubber stamp for the Commons, or that it is a cipher in the legislative process. Not only do most private bills (including divorce

bills) originate in the Senate, but the Senate ably exercises critical functions in respect of public bills. When a government bill reaches the Senate it is often returned to the Commons with numerous amendments that have been previously recommended to the Senate by one of its Standing Committees. These are often welcomed by the Commons. Moreover, as a matter of policy, numbers of public bills having a highly technical character and only incidental financial implications—for instance, the recent revision of the Bankruptcy Act and the consolidation of the Acts relating to National Defence—are introduced in the Senate so that the House of Commons may have the benefit of their prior scrutiny by that body.

The House of Commons — The House of Commons is an elected body of 262 Members including 7 Members from the new Province of Newfoundland. The representation of the provinces is computed on a mathematical basis in relation to population; the population of Canada (less the Northwest Territories) is divided by the total number of Members (less one) and the representation of any particular province is determined by dividing the population of that province by the quotient so obtained (approximately 53,500): provided that in no case is the number of Members from a province

to be less than the number of Senators to which that province is entitled. In addition, the Yukon is represented by one elected Member.

Of the three constituent elements of Parliament, the House of Commons is now clearly the most important.

Equality of the Two Houses—The Senate is formally co-ordinate with the House of Commons in legislation, except that, under the British North America Act, any bill "for appropriating any part of the public revenue, or for imposing any tax or impost" must originate in the House of Commons. Apart from the Senate's incapacity to initiate financial legislation, there is complete formal equality between the two Houses. Since no proposed measure can become law until it has passed both the Senate and the House of Commons, the Senate has a power of veto over all legislation, whether or not it is government-sponsored, originating in the House of Commons. This could obviously become embarrassing to a ministry when, as sometimes happens, there is an Opposition-controlled Senate. There have been, in fact, a large number of occasions on which the Senate has rejected government bills originating in the House of Commons, the most noted instance being the Senate's defeat of the Government's Navy Bill of 1913.

There is, therefore, no theoretical limitation on the Senate's power of veto over government legislation. The Parliament Act of the United Kingdom, which limits the power of veto of the House of Lords in respect of government legislation originating in the United Kingdom House of Commons, has no application in respect of the Parliament of Canada. The fact remains that there seems at present to be little likelihood that the Senate would defeat a government measure originating in the Canadian House of Commons. One important reason for this is that the Senate in practice exercises its powers with discretion, recognizing that (in the words of Sir Robert Borden) "effective administration of public affairs would be impossible if any instrument of government should continually exercise its powers to the legal limit". Indeed, without adequate co-operation between the two Houses, and between the executive and the two Houses, the system of parliamentary government which finds its origins in the United Kingdom could not be effective. At present, of course, the problem of possible conflict between the two Houses is less than acute because there is a large government majority in the Senate and there is always at least one Liberal Senator who is a Minister without portfolio in the Cabinet. Moreover, the recurrent agitations for Senate reform—the Senate has itself

discussed the various proposals for its own reform—are sometimes regarded as having a benevolent influence on the good relations existing between the two Houses.

By and large, however, the popularly-elected body has the dominant voice in legislation; for this reason, any article about Parliament must concern itself largely with the processes of the House of Commons.

It has already been made clear that the most obvious function of Parliament is to legislate; most importantly, it provides for the appropriation of money for public purposes, and for the raising of the necessary funds by public Acts of Parliament. Laws of more or less general application are termed "public Acts" and laws of particular application (which create exceptions to the general law) are termed "private Acts". The former are introduced as public bills (they do not become "Acts" until the necessary stages have been gone through): the latter are introduced as private bills and deal with such matters as applications for divorce or for the incorporation of companies. Public bills are usually government measures and so introduced by a Minister of the Crown. Indeed, if a bill involves an appropriation of any part of the public revenue, it must (in order to prevent surprise) be preceded by a resolution and it must be recited in the House that the Governor General "having been informed of the subject-matter of the resolution, commends it to the consideration of the House". Since the Crown acts only on the advice of Ministers, only a Minister is in a position to procure and recite the recommendation of the Governor General. This means, in

practice, that a private Member cannot introduce measures requiring the expenditure of public money, though he is otherwise free to introduce public bills.

In the words of Sir William Anson: "The most prominent if not the most important function of Parliament is legislation . . . in making laws its control over conduct is direct and absolute". Sir William was, of course, speaking of the Parliament at Westminster: the control of the Parliament of Canada is direct, but not absolute. It cannot legislate in respect of matters (such as "property and civil rights") which have been exclusively assigned, by the British North America Act, to the provincial legislatures. However, this limitation does not alter the fact that the first function of Parliament is to legislate.

This does not mean that Parliament has no other functions. It is the principal forum for the free discussion of public affairs, for the declaration and criticism of government policies. Some authorities assert that this is the paramount function of Parliament, although increasing legislative intervention in the ordinary affairs of life has tended to obscure that fact. Certainly, it is fundamental to our system of government that any grievance or proposal from whatever quarter in Canada it may emanate, may be ventilated on the floor of either House of Parliament under the protection of the parliamentary privilege of free speech. More particularly, it provides a forum in which the diverse points of view held in the various sections of Canada on public affairs

may be thoroughly aired. The effect of these discussions on government policy is difficult to assess—but since the Government requires the support of Parliament, and since the House of Commons is elected by and responsible to the people, the effect is considerable. Finally, each chamber also possesses some of the attributes of a court of law in that it is the master of its own procedure and is empowered to punish offenders against its privileges. None the less, most will agree with Sir William Anson that in these days Parliament is most prominently a legislature. In practical terms, its first function is to enact wise laws for the good government of Canada.

It remains to consider the manner in which Parliament discharges its responsibilities; in other words, to discuss "parliamentary procedure", which is simply the sum of the principles, rules and practices which govern the procedure followed by each of the three constituent elements of Parliament. Since, as has been said, the House of Commons is the dominant constituent, we shall be concerned primarily with the processes of that House. As a preliminary, it might be well to consider the objects that parliamentary procedure seeks to attain and the sources from which its particular rules and practices are derived.

Objects — Sir John Bourinot, one of the leading authorities on Canadian constitutional law, has well said:

"The principles that lie at the basis of English parliamentary law have, however, been always kept steadily in view by the Canadian Parliament: these are to protect a minority and restrain the improvidence or tyranny of a majority; to secure the transaction of public business in an orderly manner; to enable every Member to express his opinion within the limits necessary to preserve decorum and prevent an unnecessary waste of time; and to prevent any legislative action being taken upon sudden impulse."

The root and ever-present problem of parliamentary procedure is to reconcile two obvious needs—the need to expedite the nation's business, and the need to preserve the principle of free discussion.

Sources — Canadian parliamentary procedure was originally derived from the practice of the Parliament of Westminster. It would, nevertheless, be a mistake to assume that the two systems are identical or even nearly identical. The Canadian system has, through the years, developed and acquired rules and practices which give it a distinctly Canadian character. The formal sources of Canadian parliamentary law are as follows: the statutes, the standing orders, the journals of the Canadian and United Kingdom Houses, and the rulings of Mr. Speaker. Certain basic rules are set forth in the British North America Act and in the Senate and House of Commons Act (a Federal statute). Moreover, under the authority of ancient custom (the *lex et consuetudo parliamenti*),

both the House of Commons and the Senate have adopted certain basic or standing orders to govern their procedures. The rules set out in the statutes and standing orders by no means constitute a complete code: if the bare bones were left to operate by themselves (without the flesh and sinew of practice and usage) the skeleton of parliamentary procedure would soon disintegrate.

Accordingly, when the statutes and standing orders are silent or obscure, resort must be had to "the practice". What is meant primarily is the practice of the Canadian House, which can be ascertained from the journals of the Canadian Parliament and from the writings of Canadian authorities on parliamentary law. If the Canadian practice itself cannot be ascertained or is obscure, resort must be had to United Kingdom practice, which is disclosed in the journals of the United Kingdom Parliament and in the writings of United Kingdom authorities. Finally, the Speaker of the House of Commons occupies a judicial or quasi-judicial position as its presiding officer: it is his duty to decide all points of order as they arise and to quote the relevant authorities. While there is no strict doctrine of *stare decisis* (i.e., of being bound by precedent) in parliamentary procedure, the decisions of Mr. Speaker on points of order, and especially his "reasons for judgement", are among the most authoritative sources of parliamentary procedure.

Order of Business—The first question to be settled in any code of procedure designed for a deliberative assembly is the order of business to be observed day by

day. Standing Order 15 disposes of the question so far as the Canadian House of Commons is concerned. Under this Order, each day of a Session begins in the same way, with the Speaker reading a Christian prayer (on alternate days in English and French). There follows the ordinary daily routine of business: first, any reports from standing or special committees of the House are submitted by the chairman and read from the Table; second, any motions relating to the proceedings or order of business of the House are entertained; third, bills of which notice has been given are introduced and given first reading. During this "routine" period, also, documents may be tabled, and important statements of policy made by, and questions addressed to, Ministers of the Crown. However, while the routine proceedings are taken up in the same order each day, there is a difference in the order of business that follows, depending on whether the day is a "Government Day" or a "Private Members' Day".

Procedure on Opening of Session — This procedure varies at the opening of a Session. At an "opening" the Members meet in the House in response to a proclamation earlier issued and are shortly summoned to the Senate. There the Governor General reads the Speech from the Throne, which declares the "causes of summons" and gives the Members a general impression of the measures they may be called upon to consider during the Session. Until this is done, the Members are not "in Parliament assembled" and are not in a position to transact public business. If the Session marks the beginning

of a new Parliament following a general election, there is an important prior step—the election of a Speaker. The House has no identity—no eye, no ear, no mouth—without a Speaker.

When the Members return from the Senate, certain routine proceedings are gone through, and on the next sitting day a formal Address in reply to the Speech from the Throne is moved and seconded by two Members on the government side, usually chosen from those most recently elected. Usually, also, the debate on the Address is given priority over other business until it is disposed of. The debate on the Address, like the debate on any motion for the House to go into Committee of Supply or Ways and Means (which we will discuss later), are occasions on which Members may speak and move amendments "at large", i.e., without observing the usual requirement of relevancy, and which, therefore, provide the fullest opportunities for the discussion and criticism of government policy.

Government Days and Private Members' Days — Once the debate on the Address is over, the basic division is into "Government Days" (in which government measures have priority) and "Private Members' Days" (in which measures introduced by private Members have priority). Under the standing orders of the Canadian House, Mondays and Wednesdays, as well as the first four Thursdays of each Session, are set aside for private Members. In addition, the hour from 8 p.m. to 9 p.m. on Tuesdays and Fridays is set aside for private Members.

Tuesdays and Fridays, and all Thursdays after the fourth in each Session, are devoted to government business. The hours of sitting are from three to six in the afternoons and from eight to eleven in the evenings (except on Wednesdays when there is no evening sitting). As a Session nears its end, it has become customary to curtail private Members' days and to provide for Saturday and morning sittings in a concentrated effort to dispose of the public business.

Some indication has already been given of what proposals private Members may introduce. They are at liberty to introduce public bills (all private bills must be sponsored by private Members) and also abstract resolutions which do not in terms require the appropriation of any part of the public revenue or any expenditure of public funds or propose any tax or impost. The Government may on government days proceed with any sort of public bill or resolution; provided that bills for the appropriation of any part of the public revenue require, as has been noted, the prior recommendation of the Governor General; and provided also that (under the standing orders) every money bill (technically, any motion "for any public aid or charge upon the people") must be preceded by a resolution, setting forth in general the purposes of the bill, which resolution is considered in committee and adopted by the House before the bill is introduced. This requirement is, again, designed to ensure that bills with important financial implications will not be rushed through the House.

The distinction between "Government Days" and "Private Members' Days" is fundamental in Canadian parliamentary procedure. A significant difference is that private Members' resolutions and bills are taken up strictly in accordance with the precedence assigned to them on the order paper (a printed document which each day sets forth the order of business to be followed) and under the standing orders; whereas government resolutions and bills may, on government days, be taken up in such order as the Government may determine. Assuming, for instance, that there are nine items of government business standing on the order paper, the Government may decide to take up Item 9 first and, when that is disposed of, to take up Item 2—there being no legal requirement that the House must be forewarned as to the order in which government business will be taken up.

How the Business of the House is Arranged—This leads to a consideration of the manner in which the business of the House is (on government days) arranged by the Government. The Cabinet, which consists of Ministers of the Crown presided over by the Prime Minister, is of course the collective brain of the Government. It decides, on the recommendation of the Minister concerned, and often with the aid of a government caucus, whether any particular measure should be submitted to the House, in what form and at what stage of the Session. The dominant voice in this process is that of the Prime Minister who is also Leader of the

House. Since the demands on the Prime Minister's time are extremely heavy, it has been the custom for him to authorize a Cabinet Minister to lead the House on his behalf. It has become the custom also, in fairness and to prevent the delays which might result from attempts to surprise the Opposition, for the House leader to give an indication, at the close of an evening's sitting, of the order in which government business will be taken up on the next day. This is for the reason that it would be manifestly against the interest of the Government to annoy or "surprise" Opposition Members to the point at which full advantage would be taken of the numerous opportunities available to them under the rules to delay and restrain the adoption of government measures.

Rules of Debate —The foregoing leads logically to a consideration of the rules governing debate in the Canadian House of Commons. An exhaustive discussion of these rules would be far beyond the scope of this article. At the same time, the article would be incomplete without some mention of at least the main ones. Of these, the following are fundamental. They represent efforts to limit unnecessary discussion and to promote the orderly despatch of public business.

Perhaps, however, it should be emphasized that the House operates constantly in an atmosphere, if not of tension, at least of contention. The Government assumes responsibility for and supports government bills and other measures: it is the duty of the Opposition, unless these measures are unobjectionable, to criticize and resist their

adoption. While the area of contention is practically unlimited when a new Session begins, the rules of debate operate almost at once to restrict progressively the area of contention until finally all contentious matters have either been disposed of or held over. This is because once a matter has been talked out or voted upon, it cannot, under the rules, be raised again (except by unanimous consent) during that Session. This does not mean that the debates will be any less acrimonious towards the end of a Session. The reverse might be true. But the matters upon which debate may proceed will have been vastly reduced in number.

To return to the positive rules; apart from official announcements by and questions addressed to Ministers, there must always be a motion before the House, 48 hours' notice of which, as a general rule, must have been given and to which the remarks of Members must strictly relate. Secondly, no Member may speak more than once to any motion, except that the mover of a substantial (i.e., an other-than-procedural) motion is given a right of reply after all other Members desiring to speak have done so. Thirdly, as a general rule, no Member may speak more than forty minutes on any motion. Fourthly, there may be no more than two amendments before the House at any one time—an amendment of the motion, and a sub-amendment (amending the amendment). Once, however, a sub-amendment has been voted down, a new sub-amendment may be moved. Similarly, if the amendment is voted down, a new amendment (and sub-amendment) may be moved. Since each Member may speak

for forty minutes on the main motion, and on each amendment and sub-amendment, the discussion of any question could in theory continue indefinitely, and perhaps result in a "filibuster" by a relatively small group of Members.

There are, however, indirect and practical as well as direct and formal limitations on such protracted discussion. The practical limitations arise from two rules of procedure, one of which requires that, with certain rare exceptions, any amendment must be relevant to the main motion (and that any sub-amendment must be relevant to the amendment), and the other of which prevents the reintroduction of matters on which the House has already reached a decision. Accordingly, the limits of human ingenuity suggest that, perhaps rather sooner than later, Members will run out of admissible amendments. The direct and formal limitations are represented by the "closure" and the "previous question". These are procedural motions, permissible under the standing orders, whereby discussion on a given motion may be limited and the matter brought to a vote.

(1) Closure—Of the two, the "closure" is the more drastic and was not indeed introduced into the Canadian rules until 1913. Under this rule, any Minister may, if he has given notice at an earlier sitting, move that the debate on a given question "be not further adjourned". The effect of such a motion if it carries (and it must be put at once without debate) is that (a) thereafter, Members cannot speak for more than twenty minutes on the motion, and (b) the motion must be put to a vote not later than 2 a.m.

The closure has been moved only rarely in the Canadian House, though there have been at least four occasions on which it was applied—in 1913, 1917, 1926 and 1932. It is of course actually in restraint of free discussion and Governments are naturally reluctant to be put in a position in which it may be alleged that they are applying dictatorial methods. At the same time, the closure can still be applied in pressing circumstances where the Government considers it vital that a particular measure be adopted by a given time and there is no apparent disposition on the part of Opposition Members to facilitate its passage.

(2) Previous Question—The "previous question", as it operates in Canada, might be described as a "qualified closure". A Member may at any time during debate on a motion move that "the question be now put". The effect of such a motion is that no further amendments may be moved, although debate may proceed on the motion that "the question be now put". Such a motion ensures that a vote will be taken on the main question when the Members have exhausted their right or inclination to speak on the procedural motion. The "previous question", like the closure, is in restraint of free discussion and so is not commonly resorted to. However, it was freely applied during the "pipeline" debates of the Session of the House which began in January, 1951, and may be moved at any time by any Member, except when the House is "in committee". The "previous question" was in fact moved by a Minister of the Crown in 1951 on the motion for the second reading of the Government's bill to prohibit resale price maintenance.

The Committee System—It remains to say something of the various stages through which bills—particularly money bills—must pass before they become law. This in turn necessitates a brief consideration of the committee system of the House, since at various stages, bills are considered "in committee". Committees of the House are of three main kinds: committees of the whole House, standing committees and special committees.

(1) Committees of the Whole—There are three committees of the whole House: the Committee of Supply, the Committee of Ways and Means, and the Committee of the Whole. All of these include every Member of the House; when the appropriate motion is made Mr. Speaker simply leaves the Chair and a designated Member, the Chairman of Committees, becomes the presiding officer at the head of the table on the floor of the House. Proceedings "in committee" are of course considerably less formal than proceedings "in the House", and Members may speak any number of times on any motion.

The committee of the whole House to which the estimates are referred is the Committee of Supply. All the estimates, which are technically "resolutions", must be individually considered and approved in the Committee of Supply, before the necessary funds can be voted in an appropriation bill. All resolutions calling for the raising of public money by tax and impost are considered in the Committee of Ways and Means. These are the so-called "budget resolutions"; the "debate on the budget" takes place on the motion of the Minister of Finance "that Mr. Speaker do now leave the Chair for the House to

resolve itself into the Committee of Ways and Means to consider certain proposed resolutions". The "budget resolutions" are detailed statements anticipatory of amending bills (to the like effect) which will be subsequently introduced in variation of the income tax, customs tariff and other revenue-producing legislation, in accordance with government financial policy. The "Committee of the Whole" considers resolutions other than those considered in Committee of Supply or Ways and Means and, in particular, considers every bill clause by clause immediately after it has had second reading.

(2) Standing Committees—Certain standing committees of the House are provided for under the standing orders and are set up at the beginning of each Session. Standing committees, which consist of a limited number of Members (from 12 to 60), are set up on such matters as Banking and Commerce, External Affairs, Privileges and Elections, Railways, Canals and Telegraph Lines and Public Accounts.

(3) Special Committees—Special committees, also consisting of a limited number of Members, are often established by the House to consider and report on bills or other particular matters.

Money Bills—To return to money bills; before any bill "for any public aid or charge upon the people" may be introduced, a resolution setting forth generally its subject-matter must be considered in a committee of the whole House. If the resolution is favourably reported on

by the committee and approved by the House, the appropriate Minister moves "for leave to introduce a bill based on the said resolution". At this stage, there is no debate, but the Minister concerned may make a succinct explanation of the purpose of the bill. Leave being obtained, the Minister moves that the bill be read a first time. This motion is not debatable, but may be put to a vote. Copies of the bill are then distributed in English and French and the bill ordered by the House for second reading "at the next sitting of the House". On the next government day, the Minister moves that the bill be read a second time, and on this motion, the principle of the bill may be debated, but not the particular clauses of the bill. Following the second reading, the Minister moves that the House "go into Committee of the Whole on the said bill". In committee the bill is examined and discussed clause by clause. If it is favourably reported on to the House, the Minister moves that the bill be read a third time and debate may resume. When the bill is given third reading by the House, it goes to the Senate where corresponding stages are gone through. Finally, the House is summoned to the Senate, where the Governor General, or his deputy, gives the Royal Assent to the bill. The bill becomes law at the moment the Royal Assent is received, unless another time has been specified in the body of the bill.

The foregoing represents an attempt to describe in a general way how Parliament functions. It has been difficult to avoid over-simplification on the one hand and excessive detail on the other. No suggestions have

been made for the improvement of the system, though any man-made system is of course susceptible to improvement. The system attempts to apply the principles —particularly those expressed by Sir John Bourinot and quoted earlier in this article—underlying the legislative and other processes of Parliament; the system works, sometimes ponderously, but on the whole satisfactorily. The principal changes to come will probably be designed to clarify, to make the rules more understandable (and thus more workable), and to expedite the transaction of public business by effecting improvements in the application of existing principles. It is unlikely that any future modifications will be designed to weaken or destroy the principles themselves.

Prior to the Discussion Hour officers at a Unit should meet together for a general briefing on this pamphlet.

THE MINISTRY

Right Hon. Louis Stephen St. Laurent	Prime Minister and President of the Privy Council
Right Hon. Clarence Decatur Howe	Minister of Trade and Commerce and Minister of Defence Production
Right Hon. James Garfield Gardiner	Minister of Agriculture
Hon. Alphonse Fournier	Minister of Public Works
Hon. Brooke Claxton	Minister of National Defence
Hon. Lionel Chevrier	Minister of Transport
Hon. Paul Joseph James Martin	Minister of National Health and Welfare
Hon. Douglas Charles Abbott	Minister of Finance and Receiver General
Hon. James J. McCann	Minister of National Revenue
Hon. Wishart McL. Robertson	Leader of the Government in the Senate
Hon. Milton Fowler Gregg	Minister of Labour
Hon. Robert Wellington Mayhew	Minister of Fisheries
Hon. Lester Bowles Pearson	Secretary of State for External Affairs
Hon. Stuart Sinclair Garson	Minister of Justice and Attorney General
Hon. Robert Henry Winters	Minister of Resources and Development
Hon. Frederick Gordon Bradley	Secretary of State
Hon. Hugues Lapointe	Minister of Veterans Affairs
Hon. Walter Edward Harris	Minister of Citizenship and Immigration
Hon. George Prudham	Minister of Mines and Technical Surveys
Hon. Alcide Coté	Postmaster General

IMPORTANT DATES

1867 Royal Assent to British North America Act.

1869 Deed of surrender to the Crown of Hudson's Bay Company's territorial rights in the Northwest.

1870 Act to establish Province of Manitoba.

1871 British Columbia entered Confederation.

1873 Prince Edward Island entered Confederation.

1880 Appointment of Sir A. T. Galt as first Canadian High Commissioner to London. All British possessions north of the United States, except Newfoundland and its dependencies, annexed to Canada.

1898 Yukon District established as a separate Territory.

1899 Boer War: first war outside Canada to which a Canadian contingent was sent.

1905 Creation of the Provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan.

1920 Ratification of Treaty of Versailles: Canada a member of the League of Nations.

1922 Canada negotiated and signed for the first time a treaty with the United States regarding halibut fisheries.

1928 Appointment of first British High Commissioner to Canada.

1931 Statute of Westminster establishing equality of Parliament of Canada with that of the United Kingdom.

1939 Canadian declaration of war on Germany—independently of United Kingdom.

1945 United Nations World Security Conference at San Francisco to prepare a charter for the international organization.

1949 Newfoundland entered Confederation. Canada signed the North Atlantic Treaty. Amendment to Supreme Court Act gave final authority to Supreme Court of Canada. British North America Act amended by vesting in Parliament of Canada power to amend the Canadian constitution.

1952 Appointment of Rt. Hon. Vincent Massey, C.H., P.C., the first Canadian to be Governor General of Canada.

PREMIERS OF THE PROVINCES

(As at 1 May, 1952)

Province	*Name of Premier*
Alberta	Hon. Ernest C. Manning
British Columbia	Hon. Byron Ingemar Johnson
Manitoba	Hon. Douglas L. Campbell
New Brunswick	Hon. J. B. McNair
Newfoundland	Hon. Joseph R. Smallwood
Nova Scotia	Hon. Angus L. Macdonald
Ontario	Hon. Leslie M. Frost
Prince Edward Island	Hon. J. Walter Jones
Quebec	Hon. Maurice L. Duplessis
Saskatchewan	Hon. Thomas C. Douglas

How to use this . . . PAMPHLET

How Parliament Works

This is Article No. 2 in the CITIZENSHIP SERIES of CURRENT AFFAIRS pamphlets.

Read this pamphlet carefully several times and make notes. Underline those points you particularly wish to stress. In making notes keep in mind the main purpose of the discussion topic.

I. **PURPOSE:**

The purpose of this discussion topic is to show what Parliament is, what it is supposed to do and how it does it.

II. **DISCUSSION HOUR PLAN:**

It is essential that your Discussion Hour be planned around an outline. It is better if you construct your own but you might follow the form suggested below. There are different methods of conducting the Discussion Hour such as the conference, the committee and the panel methods. The form of outline below is used in the conference method.

1. **Introduction** (2-3 minutes):—
   i. Mention news events connected with this topic.
   ii. Relate this topic to other topics in the Current Affairs series.

2. **Leader's Presentation** (15-20 minutes):—
   Write main points on the blackboard.
   i. Parliament is the Queen, the Senate and the House of Commons.
   ii. Parliament's functions include: making laws, discussing public affairs, criticizing government policy, providing funds for public purposes.
   iii. The objects of Parliament are to protect the minority and restrain the majority, to transact business in an orderly manner, to enable Members to express opinions and to prevent legislation on sudden impulse.
   iv. Parliament's order of business is determined by Standing Order 15.
   v. The rules of debate, including 'closure' and 'the previous question' are designed to promote order in conducting the business of the House.
   vi. A study of the committee system reveals the method followed in enacting legislation.

3. **Discussion Questions** (30-35 minutes):—

The following questions have been prepared but they are intended as samples only. You should make your own questions.

i. Are there any limitations on the power of Parliament?

ii. What connection is there between the Canadian Parliament and the Parliament at Westminster?

iii. What is the line of demarcation between the authority of Federal and provincial legislatures?

iv. What are the advantages of a parliamentary system over other forms of government?

4. **Summary**:—

i. Summarize the main points brought out in the Discussion Hour, keeping in mind the purpose of this discussion topic as stated above.

ii. Announce the topic for next week and suggest available references, particularly previous Current Affairs pamphlets.

III. **AND REMEMBER . . .**

1. The Discussion Hour should be held in a room that is physically comfortable.

2. Make sure you have the right kind of equipment in the right place before you need it:—
   i. blackboard, chalk and eraser in the room where the discussion is to take place;
   ii. reference books, periodicals, etc., in the Unit Library;
   iii. suitable projector, screen, films and filmstrips which you may be able to obtain, maps and charts.
3. Keep the size of your group to less than thirty.
4. Make constant use of any available visual aids.
5. Use notes if you must, but you will be more effective without them.
6. Do not read to your group.
7. Ample opportunity must be given for all-round discussion. The Discussion Hour is not a question-answer period.
8. Do not let one or two individuals monopolize the whole of the time.
9. Remind the group when necessary, to keep to the matter under discussion.
10. Ask questions of individuals and encourage spontaneous contributions.

Bulletin Board

- **Articles** which appear in *Current Affairs* pamphlets should be regarded as expressing the views of the individuals who write them. They are not necessarily the views of the Department of National Defence or of the Bureau of Current Affairs.

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DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA — CANADA

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No. 3 in Citizenship Series

FOR THE CANADIAN FORCES

Government
Publications

The third of a series of pamphlets on Canadian Citizenship by outstanding authorities, prepared especially for the armed forces by the Bureau of Current Affairs

Local Government

By Wilfrid Eggleston

BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, CANADA

INTRODUCTION

In a foreword to the first of the regular series of Current Affairs pamphlets issued in October, 1951, the Minister of National Defence, the Hon. Brooke Claxton, stated that service personnel "should know as much as possible about Canada".

Accordingly, the Bureau of Current Affairs has initiated a series of citizenship pamphlets of which this one, *Local Government*, is the third. This pamphlet deals with the government of municipalities, counties, towns, cities and metropolitan areas—the seedbed of our Canadian democracy.

It is becoming increasingly obvious in the world of today that, as stated in this pamphlet, democracy cannot exist unless in every citizen there is a sense of personal and social responsibility. There is an opportunity for every adult citizen in Canada to give time and energy in a public-spirited manner to the activities in his local community. A very important activity of this nature is local government.

Thus it is essential that a good citizen should know how his local government works, take part in local elections and, as much as he is able, be active in promoting the welfare of his community through local action.

The material in this pamphlet supplements that in the other pamphlets of the series. It presents yet another aspect of the democratic system under which we live and in which we believe — the system that Canadian service personnel are pledged to defend.

HARRY R. LOW

Director, Bureau of Current Affairs

Local Government

The Seedbed of Democracy

by WILFRID EGGLESTON

It may be useful to begin this study of local government with a brief reference to the nature of government itself. In its simplest sense, government is a system of rules which are enforced in a community or society. The opposite of government is anarchy, a state in which the individual does exactly what he wants. It is difficult to conceive of a state of pure anarchy lasting very long among people who live in close contact. Conflicts of interest and appetite would result in some kind of rule growing up, even if it were no more than rule by personal whim of the strongest and cleverest members of the group.

Government in Canada is like government in any other modern western state: government by rule of law, government by discussion, based on forms which have

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been moulded by many centuries of experience. The rule of law means that all members of the society voluntarily observe the law, or are compelled to do so by their fellows. Any such organization of society spells some loss of freedom but, as Frank Jessup says in a Cambridge University monograph on local government, "The diminution of certain liberties is the price which we pay — and the terms are reasonable — for a more equitable distribution and a more secure possession of rights".

Local government is then the system of rules or laws under which people in the same neighbourhood or community fashion their behaviour and pool their services.

* * *

The relations between a member of society and his government deserve further notice. If a man chooses to live quite apart from his fellow man he may conceivably escape the reach of government altogether: he may make his own rules. This is a rare if not impossible case in the modern world. The amount of government tends to grow with the intimacy and propinquity of the members of society, and with the growing specialization and interdependence of society.

Pioneer Conditions — The sparsely settled frontiers of North America were at first relatively lawless; as communities formed, law and order were perforce introduced. A dispersed pioneer fringe on a subsistence or self-sufficient basis can manage—indeed, must manage—with a minimum of regulation; a great modern city cannot escape a vast amount of it.

At Confederation—The complexity and range of government will, of course, alter with the economic and social evolution of a country. Canada was created a federal union in 1867 at a time when the 'laissez-faire' theory of government (leave people alone—the less government the better) was about at its peak. Moreover, Canada in 1867 consisted largely of fairly isolated self-sufficient regions of primary production. Since 1867 it has grown into an integrated transcontinental industrial economy. Government which is appropriate in a simple rural economy ceases to be adequate when such a revolution takes place. All sorts of new problems and anomalies arise.

Any examination of local government in Canada must take account of the fact that it is one of three levels, the other two being provincial and national.

Present-Day Units — The unit of local government may be a school district, a rural municipality, a parish (in Quebec), a county (in the six provinces east of Manitoba), a village, a town, a city, a metropolitan area. It may be exclusively rural or exclusively urban, or a combination of both, or suburban, or a satellite or 'dormitory'

town. Or the unit may be a 'special area', consisting of a group of municipalities, in which case the jurisdiction of such a 'special area' may be limited to a single field (a county health unit, for example, a hospital district, or a drainage district).

There are large areas of Canada which are classed as 'unorganized territory' and which possess virtually no local government. Such areas are under the supervision of the provincial government or, north of latitude 60°, of the national government.

* * *

Before looking at the machinery of local government, and its powers and responsibilities, a few fundamentals about the functions of the state may be considered.

Some of these functions, mainly regulatory, are such that modern conditions and modern western philosophies make them basic and inescapable, no matter what the prevailing politics of the day may be. There are other, mainly newer, functions and services which may well be adopted by any government on the grounds of their financial advantage, their utility or amenity, but which are not indispensable.

The Regulative State—This first category of fundamental activities was lucidly outlined in the eighteenth century by Adam Smith, a great believer in a minimum of state action:

"First, the duty of protecting society from the violence and invasion of other independent societies; secondly, of protecting, so far as possible, every member of the society from the injustice or oppression of every other member of it, or the duty of establishing an exact administration of justice; and, thirdly, the duty of erecting and maintaining certain public institutions, which it can never be for the interest of any individual, or small number of individuals, to erect and maintain; because the profit could never repay the expense to any individual or small number of individuals, though it may frequently do much more than repay it to a great society."

If these duties only were discharged by a modern government, it would seem to be confined to three departments: national defence, justice and public works.

The Social Service State—The 'regulative' state of Adam Smith has evolved into the modern 'social service' state. It has been discovered that there are many other and additional functions which people can now do collectively with more benefit than they can do individually. Some of such functions begin on a voluntary or private commercial basis and are later taken over by the state. There are services at any given time which one government may choose to do by state action while another will

leave them to private initiative. Early turnpikes and highways were sometimes built by private enterprise and the costs recouped by tolls. Some of the new super-highways in the United States are operated on that basis. Bridges are usually built nowadays by the state, but private toll-bridges are an alternative in some regions. The postal service could conceivably be operated by private firms; one still finds private delivery services employed by the post office for delivering special delivery letters. Ferries may be run either by the government or by private firms; harbour operation, however, could hardly be left to commercial interests alone. Social insurance can be a private enterprise, a state enterprise or a combination. Some early water companies were owned by individuals; in a Saskatchewan village without a water supply, an enterprising farmer or villager might sell water at so much a pail or barrel on a private enterprise basis. But it would obviously never do to 'farm out' to private enterprise the administration of justice, or the defence of the nation from external enemies.

Evolution from Regulative to Social Service State — The natural and indeed almost inevitable way in which many of these services—aside from the basic regulatory ones—begin by being private and individual, and end by being local state enterprises, can be seen in the history of our own time.

Take, for example, a farmer situated a few miles from a town which, in his lifetime, expands enormously

because of industrial and commercial developments, and extends its boundaries to the point where eventually the original farm house finds itself located on a new suburban street.

While he was in effect an isolated, relatively self-sufficient rural ratepayer, the farmer performed for himself almost all the services he enjoyed. (His grandfather, on the same site, may even have provided his own law and order with a shotgun or stout staff.) He looked after his own fire protection, dug his own well, looked after his sanitation, mended his own roads or joined with his neighbours in cutting a new road through the bush, provided his own light, heat and power, from coal oil lamps, hardwood and horses. Such parks or picnic grounds as he desired, he found or furnished himself. If he wanted a playground for the children, he made it himself. If he needed a library, he purchased his own books. Garbage disposal was no serious problem.

But as the metropolitan area approached and finally engulfed the home of such a farmer, he would find that most or all of these services were provided, willynilly, by the municipal government. City water, city sewage, city gas and electricity would be available, indeed, compulsory. The fire department would be at his call; so would the city police department. Sidewalks and streets would be built past his door with or without his permission or consent.

Cost of Service—He would discover, of course, that these fine new services were not provided without charge. They were never free: but whereas before they had cost much energy and little cash, now they would all be performed for him by his local government, and the cash cost would rise greatly. Many of the new services would, of course, be beyond his capacity to supply on the old individual basis at any cost. With a man's taxes he buys civilization, as Mr. Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes is reported to have said.

* * *

What is the position of the municipality in the Canadian constitution? The British North America Act of 1867 endowed the provinces with the exclusive authority to make laws in relation to "municipal institutions in the province", (Section 92, No. 8). The B.N.A. Act divided sovereignty between the Dominion and the provinces; but the municipalities possess only the sovereignty given to them by the province; what is given may be taken away again. Yet it is hardly true to call the municipality the agent of the provincial government: nor is it an extension of the provincial government, discharging provincial obligations in a local or specific area. While in a technical

sense the municipality has no autonomous powers, while it is always in a subordinate position to the provincial government, and subject to the supervision of such a provincial body as a Department of Municipal Affairs, in reality it is a semi-autonomous unit of government. It cannot exceed the powers conferred upon it in its charter, or conferred upon it by provincial statute; and it may not do those things which it is forbidden to do by provincial enactment. Yet in fact, it is given fairly clear-cut and definite areas of intensive activity and, so long as it does not exceed the bounds of those powers, it is free to carry on its affairs without provincial interference; and it does possess extensive control over the social and physical environment within its boundaries.

* * *

Modern governments are called upon to perform an amazing variety of services, from the provision of 'free' wigs and dentures to the building of atomic or nuclear power-houses. How are these services to be divided logically among the several levels of government? What should be the proper responsibility of the local or municipal government?

In the Nineteenth Century — In earlier days this question was much simpler than it is now. To quote from *Municipal Finance in Canada* by H. C. Goldenberg:

"In the middle of the nineteenth century, Canadian municipalities were . . . the local units in the economy: they were more on a subsistence, and therefore self-sufficient basis, and the functions of municipal governments were local in the most direct sense of the term, arising in each case out of the particular circumstances and desires of each community. Municipal boundaries were more realistic—each town was a clearly recognizable entity, and rural areas were also for the most part separate and distinct regions, each with a highly developed local character. Trade was chiefly between the town and its rural hinterland. Industrial activity was not great and mass production unknown. Industry was dispersed, and within each community small factories, mills and home handicraft provided most non-agricultural goods. There was a frontier to be pushed out by the discontented or those unable to prosper, as prosperity was then known, in their original area. Occupations required little training or education, and training for one was adequate equipment for another."

The functions of government in those days were thus relatively simple, clear-cut and inexpensive, and were capable of being decentralized and left to the councillors and ratepayers of the municipality. They were almost exclusively regulatory. Police and fire protection, maintenance of local roads and streets, primitive street light-

ing, rudimentary measures for sanitation and public health, the payment of fence-viewers, pound-keepers and path-masters, loomed large in local affairs.

Growth Since Confederation—This historic note is introduced because most of the really thorny problems of local government in Canada today have grown out of the revolutionary changes which have since taken place. The fact is that since Confederation the field of government activities has grown out of all recognition. In 1867 a sum of $25 million was adequate to meet all the expenses of government, at all three levels, for 3½ million people. In 1952 it requires over $6 billion dollars—a sum 240 times as large—for a population only four times higher. Many of these new services and functions of government have national or provincial aspects and yet possess important local implications. A large part of the municipal history of Canada over the past 80 years consists of the struggles of local governments coping with new problems of regional and national importance, while lacking the tax or revenue resources or width of base, to meet them equitably and effectively.

Financial Burdens — No serious problem faces the local government so long as its burdens are essentially those of local regulatory or utility services. The municipalities possess, as we shall see, a virtual monopoly over real property taxation; and there is both logic and equity in requiring the owners of real estate to finance government activities which increase the security and amenity

of life, and directly benefit their holdings and their income. But many of the new activities of government since Confederation, while initially left to the provision of local governments, are now really of regional, provincial and national concern; and indeed have been found to be intolerable burdens on many communities, unless the provincial or national governments take up most or all of the financial responsibility.

The three expanding fields which have driven the municipalities of Canada into constant budgetary difficulties in recent years are education, highways and social welfare. The simple educational apparatus of Confederation is quite unsuited to a professional, industrial and technological society. A section of a modern trunk highway may cost more to build than the total assessment value of the rural municipality through which the section passes. If an industrial town is flat on its back because of unemployment, how logical is the old allocation of responsibilities, that it shall look after its own 'poor relief'—in modern terms, its unemployment assistance, its family allowances, mothers' and widows' allowances, old age pensions, and the like?

Necessity for Assistance—To illustrate the impossible position in which such an industrial community would be placed today, if the traditions of 80 years ago were rigidly adhered to, let us consider what is involved.

At Confederation and for some decades afterwards, the burden of carrying the costs of indigence, disability,

dependence and social calamity was borne primarily by the family and the family group. Voluntary aid from the neighbourhood, from the church and from charitable associations supplemented family aid. Only when these resources proved inadequate was the municipality likely to intervene, and then on a frugal scale. Early theories linked the jobless with the shiftless; it was assumed that a person without work lacked application or character. Employment of some kind was usually available, enough to keep body and soul together. At last resort there was always the frontier, where shelter, clothing and sufficient food were obtainable without too much difficulty from local resources.

What small residue of social distress was left in a locality might still embarrass the local authorities, but it was not allowed to cost much in taxes. Poor relief, 'Houses of Refuge', asylums, homes for the delinquent, appear here and there in the early social history of Canada: but that they were not lavishly supported can be assumed from the fact that for 3½ million Canadians at Confederation the annual bill for all public welfare was $800,000, which is about 23 cents per capita per year. (In passing, it might be added that the national government alone is currently spending about a thousand times as much.)

In contrast with the self-reliance of the early village or small town in Canada consider the modern industrial centre, a one-product town, at a time when due to domestic slump or failure of export markets, the mills close

down for an extended period. If a thousand skilled and semi-skilled workers become suddenly unemployed, the earlier solution of leaving the problem on the shoulders of the family and the limited community no longer is adequate. All the assumptions of the philosophy of self-reliance fail.

Example — The textile workers are obviously not unemployed because of shiftlessness. There may be work in other industrial centres, for which some will look. Others will hesitate to risk their seniority and place in the local mills, and gamble their savings in hunting textile factories in need of help elsewhere. In the present state of affairs, unemployment insurance benefits will ease the blow for a while. If unemployment continues, the bill for social welfare will rise steadily. The rest of the community, owing its existence largely to the wages and salaries of the textile mills, are in no shape to provide work or to pay extra taxes. Almost the sole revenue of such a town corporation is the tax on the real property of its inhabitants, the business premises and the residential properties. Many of the latter will be owned and occupied by the unemployed textile workers, and it is absurd to seek to raise large additional sums for community relief from people who are no longer able to pay even their grocery bills.

Since the town finances will soon be quite unable to meet the local costs of social welfare under these circumstances, the next stage will be an appeal to the provincial

government for help. If the textile slump is an isolated phenomenon, and the remainder of the province is enjoying buoyant business conditions, this may be a practical measure. But the whole province may be suffering from the impact of poor markets or an economic deflation. (In 1937, the cost of relief in Saskatchewan amounted to one and two-thirds times the combined total of the provincial and municipal revenues of the province!) The textile slump of which we have been considering the consequences may have been the direct result of a policy adopted at Ottawa, or the failure of Ottawa to take constructive action. It may arise from international developments over which the municipality and the province certainly have no influence, but which Ottawa by trade treaties or other action could ameliorate. The closing down of the mills may even be the direct result of a national decision to favour the Canadian consumer from coast to coast at the cost of a few protected industries. So long as people within a community possess the power to climb out of their difficulties by their own efforts, there is logic in leaving the load of social welfare to them. Under present-day conditions the local governments face a hopeless task in the circumstances described.

Summary—What all this adds up to may be summarized in a paragraph. Some of the most important and costly new services of government have serious local implications but cannot with equity be carried by local revenues, indeed cannot be carried by them at all. There are still many local services which are well within the

capacity of local taxpayers to support, which benefit the local property holders and the local citizens (and no one else, to any material extent) and these should continue to be discharged by local effort. The great task in this field today is to distinguish and discriminate between these sets of burdens, and to spread the new costs where they can best and most equitably be carried.

* * *

Local government in Canada presents considerable variety as one looks at it across the country from Newfoundland to British Columbia, and it would take more space than is here available to describe the different institutions in detail. Almost any textbook on civics or government will provide the particulars. The basic principles are, however, sufficiently similar in all provinces to permit brief summarization.

The Council — The unit of municipal government has already been noted. The inhabitants living within the boundaries of a municipality form a 'body corporate' under the municipal law. The real or final power rests with the voters, who are usually the people of voting age who own or occupy real property within the municipality. They govern through representatives, who are chosen by annual or biennial elections. The elected representatives

form a council. Such a municipal council is the democratic core or heart of the local government system.

The council is the executive and legislative arm of municipal government. Its chairman or chief member is a warden, mayor or reeve or bears a similar title.

Powers of the Council—The powers of a municipal council are those set forth in the municipal charter, or prescribed by provincial statute. These powers may be general in character and usually need to be supplemented by the passing of 'by-laws' or municipal enactments. The council exercises its powers through contracts, agreements, and deeds; and by supervision of the officers employed by the corporation. Its first meeting after election is fixed by the municipal law of the province. Subsequent meetings are usually held in accordance with the regulations of the council. Normally all meetings are open to the press. Large councils transact much of their business through committees. The procedure of municipal government in Canada follows broadly the conventions and practices of parliamentary government.

The head of a council is the chief executive officer of the corporation. He presides over its meetings, signs, seals and executes, in the name of the council, all legal instruments of the local government.

Officials—It is, of course, impossible for the small number of elected representatives of the people to discharge the actual day-to-day business of a populous municipality. This is done by the civic officials. Some

cities have adopted the 'city manager' plan under which the administrative work of the local government is directed through a sort of general manager. Others, the great majority, work through a more decentralized system. The city clerk, the city treasurer, the city solicitor, the city engineer, the city tax collector, the city assessor, the chief medical health officer, the police commissioner, the fire commissioner, the parks commissioner, etc., carry out with their staffs the will of the council.

* * *

Restrictions — The power of any government is sharply limited by its ability to raise revenues by taxation or borrowing. If it cannot pay for activities, it cannot long engage in them. The municipality in Canada is narrowly restricted in its revenue sources. It can raise money only by methods authorized by the provincial government. The provincial government in turn is confined by Sections 91 and 92 of the British North America Act. The former empowers the Dominion to raise money "by any mode or system of taxation", whereas the province is limited to "direct taxation within the province in order to the raising of a revenue for provincial purposes". Consequently neither the province nor the municipality may legally impose indirect taxation of any kind, lacking an amendment of the Constitution.

Real Property Taxes—In practice, the local governments of Canada rely very heavily upon direct taxes imposed on real property, land and buildings. Since this is the most convenient and on the whole the most equitable tax for financing local government activities (certainly those which directly benefit real estate) a tradition has grown up under which the provinces leave this field of taxation almost exclusively to the municipality.

Other Sources of Revenue—Other sources of municipal revenue are licence fees for regulatory purposes (e.g., dog tax, hawkers' licences) business licences and business taxes. Grants and subsidies from senior governments may supplement revenues from taxation. Some municipalities engage in the provision of such services as light, heat, power and transport; and if there are profits, these form a part of municipal revenue. However, in many municipalities the real property tax supplies 90 per cent or more of all revenue.

Problems—One of the acute modern tax problems of municipalities grows out of the urban and industrial integration of Canada, and has already been hinted at. Since the finances of the municipality must be carried essentially by taxation of real estate, the moment it begins to engage in government activities beyond those of local services and improvements some measure of inequity arises. The provision of good municipal government, police and fire protection, sidewalks and streets, sewage and drainage, a safe and palatable water supply,

local health and marketing regulations, boulevards, parks, libraries, can profitably be carried by taxes on real estate, because such things enhance the value, utility and amenity of the properties, and raise the standard of living of the owners and occupants of the buildings. There is also a case for some taxation of business and industry, in so far as it can be shown that such municipal expenditures attract capital and make for a better and more satisfied staff or personnel.

But in late years it has been increasingly difficult for local governments to escape heavy additional burdens which, while they have incidental local value, are also of value and concern to the whole province and indeed the whole nation. Advanced technical and professional education, adequate health and welfare measures, urban links in great national highways, are illustrations of these heavy additional loads.

This combination of local and universal services has been piling up to a point where in some parts of Canada it sets up destructive or at least undesirable factors and forces. We saw in the 1930's what could happen in an economic depression, when municipal taxes piled up, wholesale tax sales took place, many municipalities defaulted on their bonded obligations, needed works and services were neglected, and a blight fell on wide areas. Even in good times excessive real estate taxation may drive citizens out to seek lower tax areas, distorting the natural urban development, raising new problems in providing facilities such as transport, depressing real estate

values in the 'trough' between the heart of the city and the suburbs. Real estate taxation has many merits, including that of high stability and ease of collection, but pushed to the limit it may lead, in Goldenberg's phrase, to a "continued downward spiral in values, and impede new building, as well as to cause properties to be abandoned instead of held".

Possible Solutions—The logic of the preceding paragraphs points to the need of widening the tax base of the municipalities (and it is almost impossible to arrange this in an equitable and productive way) or of shifting from the shoulders of local governments the burden of the new regional and national services. Provincial grants to the municipalities, so as to allow them to continue local administration and control of such services, is one way out, and the practice is growing. One danger may be noted. The acceptance of grants carries with it the implication that some supervision and inspection will be permitted. In the long run he who pays the piper calls the tune. Centralization of fund sources may lead to centralization of authority. Extensive use of subsidies seems inescapable in the Canadian government structure but it is always important to guard against the possibility that the recipient governments will become subservient to the sources of the subsidies and thus lose much or most of their sovereignty. It will be more difficult than ever to attract citizens to serve local governments if the latter become rigidly-bound servants of the provincial and national governments.

This brings us to the intimate connection between local government and the preservation of the democratic system. It has long been contended by students of government that the two hang together. Goldenberg puts it this way: "In any democratic state the principle of self-government in local affairs is a major constitutional premise." Herman Finer, author of a standard work on English local government, says we should never forget that "as soon as we cease to govern ourselves competently the more brutal types are only too ready to dictate to us". To win both wealth and liberty, Finer contends in another place, requires greater efforts than have been asked from us in other ages. "We shall be obliged to learn that local government is not merely a casual, unskilled job. The day of the amateur is everywhere over. Local government is a highly skilled full-time occupation . . . The alternative is plain—either be enlightened and govern yourself or submit to the dictation of the expert". Frank Jessup, author of the study already cited, believes that local government may prove to be the device which offers a middle way between *laissez-faire* (no longer feasible even if desirable) and state regimentation, which involves a serious, perhaps a fatal, loss of liberty. "Political organization in societies small enough for the individual not to be lost in the group is the only hope of reconciling liberty with equality", he argues

One great enemy of good local government is public indifference. Those who adopt a superior attitude and confine their contributions to carping criticism have only themselves to blame if inferior councillors take office and maladminister local affairs. The mess that 'they' are making may arouse our wrath, but what is the answer to anyone who asks us if we have ever lifted a finger ourselves to improve civil conditions? Participation in local government has little to offer in the way of direct financial reward. But fortunately there has always been a body of public spirited citizens who find creative satisfaction in the preservation of civil liberties and the improvement of community conditions. "A constant stream of capable, thoughtful and informed men and women coming forward with unselfish willingness to devote time and energy to furthering the welfare of their fellows — all without hope of tangible reward or expectation of gratitude — is the lifeblood of local government", Jessup asserts; and he warns that "Democracy cannot survive the withdrawal of the people's interest, it cannot exist unless, in every citizen, there is a sense of personal and social responsibility".

How can the interested citizen play a part in local government? On the minimum level, there is the exercise of the ballot. It is, perhaps, better to vote blindly than not vote at all, but if the franchise is to mean anything, the voter must take the trouble to find out which of the candidates is most likely to give honest and effective service; or which side of the issue promises to serve the majority of the citizens.

Public opinion is a powerful force in any democracy, and it is open to almost anyone to play his part in building up public opinion for this or against that. Most council meetings are open to the public, many civic activities are reported in the press. The 'letters to the editor' column is open, usually, to any earnest ratepayer. Our alderman or councillor may be anxious to know our views or benefit from our counsel. We can join a civic improvement association, or a home and school association, or a community betterment movement of some kind. There are opportunities to serve on boards and commissions. Citizens who take part in community activities and have ambitions for position will find or make a chance to run for office. Success in minor or subordinate posts opens the door to loftier responsibilities. Politics at any level has its costs, such as being at the beck and call of the constituency, the loss of much privacy and of protection from press attack. Public service in the interests of a community is a high mark of citizenship and a contribution toward creative democracy.

Before the Discussion Hour officers at a Unit should meet together for a general briefing on this pamphlet.

For Further Study

Books and Pamphlets

Canadian Democracy in Action by G. W. Brown (Toronto: J. M. Dent and Sons. 60 cents).*

Canadian Government and Politics by H. McD. Clokie (Toronto: Longmans, Longmans, Green and Company. $3.50).

Democratic Government and Politics by J. A. Corry (Toronto: University of Toronto Press. $3.75).

English Local Government by H. Finer (London: Methuen and Company, Ltd. $5.00).*

Local Government in Canada by H. L. Brittain (Toronto: Ryerson Press. $6.00).

Problems of Local Government in England and Wales by F. Jessup (Toronto: The Macmillan Company. $1.00).

Monthly Magazines

Civic Administration (Toronto: $3.00 p.a.)
The Municipal World (St. Thomas: $2.00 p.a.)
The Saskatchewan Municipal Record (Regina: $1.25 p.a.)
The Western Municipal News (Winnipeg: $1.25 p.a.)

Filmstrips

Our Government: Municipal Government (Ottawa: The National Film Board of Canada or NFB Regional Offices throughout Canada. $1.50 each part).
Part I. *Elections*
Part II. *Functions*

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* Price subject to change.

How to use this . . .
PAMPHLET

LOCAL GOVERNMENT

This is Article No. 3 in the CITIZENSHIP Series.

Read this pamphlet carefully several times and make notes. Underline those points you particularly wish to stress. In making notes keep in mind the main purpose of the discussion topic.

I. PURPOSE:—

The main purpose of this discussion topic is to describe the local government system in Canada and to show its relationship to our democratic way of life.

II. DISCUSSION HOUR PLAN:—

It is essential that your Discussion Hour be planned around an outline. It is better if you construct your own but you might follow the form suggested below.

There are different methods of conducting the Discussion Hour such as the conference, the committee and the panel methods. The form of outline below is used in the conference method.

1. **Introduction** (2-3 minutes):—

   i. Mention news events connected with this topic.

   ii. Relate this topic to other topics in the *Citizenship* series.

2. **Leader's Presentation** (15-20 minutes):—

   Write main points on the blackboard.

   i. Government and its functions.

   ii. Municipal duties and responsibilities in 1867 and today.

   iii. The machinery of local government and how it works.

   iv. The financial problem—the undue burden on real estate.

   v. The place of local government in our democratic system.

3. **Discussion Questions** (30-35 minutes):—

   The following questions have been prepared but they are intended as samples only. You should make your own questions.

i. Is local government too expensive?

ii. How can the Canadian system of local government be improved?

iii. How much evidence is there that local government is the seedbed of democracy?

iv. How do conditions in modern society affect local government?

v. How can the best type of citizen be attracted to seek office in local government?

4. **Summary:—**

i. Summarize the main points brought out in the Discussion Hour, keeping in mind the purpose of this discussion topic as stated above.

ii. Announce the topic for next week and suggest available references, particularly previous Current Affairs and Citizenship pamphlets.

III. **AND REMEMBER . . .**

1. The Discussion Hour should be held in a room that is physically comfortable.

2. Make sure you have the right kind of equipment in the right place before you need it:—
   i. blackboard, chalk and eraser in the room where the discussion is to take place;
   ii. reference books, periodicals, etc., in the Unit Library;
   iii. suitable projector, screen, films and filmstrips which you may be able to obtain, maps and charts.
3. Keep the size of your group to less than thirty.
4. Make constant use of any available visual aids.
5. Use notes if you must, but you will be more effective without them.
6. Do not read to your group.
7. Ample opportunity must be given for all-round discussion. The Discussion Hour is not a question-answer period.
8. Do not let one or two individuals monopolize the whole of the time.
9. Remind the group when necessary, to keep to the matter under discussion.
10. Ask questions of individuals and encourage spontaneous contributions.

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BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA — CANADA

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No. 4 in Citizenship Series

FOR THE CANADIAN FORCES

Government
Publications

The fourth of a series of pamphlets on Canadian Citizenship by outstanding authorities, prepared especially for the Armed Forces by the Bureau of Current Affairs.

The Service Man and His Vote

BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, CANADA

INTRODUCTION

The Bureau of Current Affairs has published a series of citizenship pamphlets of which this one, *The Service Man and His Vote,* is the fourth.

This pamphlet describes how voting in a general election is organized for members of the forces so they can exercise the same right and privilege as any other Canadian citizen. It presents the conditions he or she must comply with to cast a ballot and outlines the precautions taken to ensure the secrecy of the service ballot.

The material contained in this pamphlet supplements that in the other pamphlets of the series. Taken together they summarize our democratic system of government; they show how the system works and what we must do to make it continue to work. It is important for the service man or woman to know the principles by which we are governed, and to exercise our democratic right to vote. This, after all, is one of the human rights that you have pledged yourself to defend.

HARRY R. LOW
Director, Bureau of Current Affairs

The Service Man and His Vote

This pamphlet was prepared in the Bureau of Current Affairs with the co-operation of the Chief Electoral Officer and the Judge Advocate General.

THE ARMED FORCES *as such* take no part in Canadian politics. Service regulations, like the regulations in force in other countries, have consistently provided that there is to be no political activity in service establishments and that members of the armed forces are not to participate in political organization. This is necessary to make sure that members of the armed forces are not exposed to special pressures; that neither the government of the day, nor the services, can be charged with exerting improper influence; and that service personnel can feel free to vote just like anybody else.

Wherever you may be, the vote you cast is counted in the proper electoral district.

In the forthcoming election you, as a service elector, are entitled to vote in one of the 263 electoral districts of Canada. To ensure that this rather complicated job is done efficiently, service personnel charged with taking the ballot are given special instructions by representatives of the Judge Advocate General, working under the authority and at the direction of the Chief Electoral Officer. They must set up the machinery by which the votes of the members of the three services are received and counted.

It is the duty of the Department of National Defence and of the armed services, particularly all those who register electors, conduct the vote and forward the outer envelopes containing the ballots to the civilian returning officers, to see that the *Canada Elections Act and Canadian Forces Voting Regulations* are carried out in letter and in spirit.

Qualifications

Those entitled to vote under *The Canadian Forces Voting Regulations* are called *Canadian Forces Electors.* They must be Canadian citizens or other British subjects and members of the regular forces, or members of the reserve forces on full-time employment or on active service. They must be 21 years of age unless, subsequent to September 9, 1950, they served on active service. Members of the regular forces are entitled to vote even if under age 21, since the regular forces have been on active service since September 9, 1950.

Residence

Under *The Canadian Forces Voting Regulations* you are required to complete a statement showing your place of ordinary residence. This determines where your vote is to be counted. If you are a member of the

regular forces enrolled on or before June 21, 1952, you may select a place in Canada where a relative resides or where you yourself are residing or where you resided before enrolment. If you are serving outside Canada and did not reside in Canada before enrolment, and have no relative resident in Canada, you must specify the place in Canada where you lived immediately before being posted outside Canada. If you joined the regular forces after June 21, 1952, you must specify the place in Canada where you lived at the time you enrolled; your vote may be counted only in that place.

The votes of *reserves on full-time service* are counted in the constituency where they resided immediately prior to beginning that service. If the reserves are on *active service* their vote is counted in the constituency where they resided at the time of being placed on active service. Reserves who are neither on full-time service nor on active service vote as civilian electors.

When a member of the forces completes his *Statement of Ordinary Residence,* one copy of that statement is sent to the headquarters of his service, the other copy is retained with his documents. A member of the regular forces may declare a change in his place of ordinary residence during the month of December of any year, but the new place selected by him must be one of the places described above.

Voting Territories

When a general election is called, the Governor in Council immediately appoints a civilian as special returning officer in each of the service voting territories as follows:

(i) Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland make up one voting territory, with headquarters at Halifax;

(ii) Ontario and Quebec a second, with headquarters at Ottawa;

(iii) Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, British Columbia, the two electoral districts of Yukon and Mackenzie River, and the Far North except Baffin Island a third, with headquarters at Edmonton.

In addition to these three voting territories the Chief Electoral Officer may establish further voting territories beyond Canada if there are substantial numbers of service men serving abroad. In the present circumstances, with troops in considerable numbers in both the Far East and Europe, two special voting territories have been established:

(i) one with headquarters at Kure, Japan,

(ii) the other with headquarters at London, England.

Units in the Aleutians come within the voting territory comprising Japan and Korea; units in the State of Washington come within the voting territory with head-

quarters at Edmonton; members of Canadian Joint Staff at Washington and of a unit in Ohio, within the voting territory with headquarters at Ottawa; and units of the Air Force stationed at Baffin Island, within the voting territory with headquarters at Halifax.

Scrutineers

Six civilians act as scrutineers in the headquarters of each civilian special returning officer. Two of the civilian scrutineers are nominated by the Leader of the Government, two by the Leader of the Opposition and two on the joint recommendation of the leaders of political groups having a recognized membership in the House of Commons of ten or more.

Returning Officers and Liaison Officers

The duties of the civilian special returning officer are to superintend the taking of the service vote in each of the voting territories. He is assisted by three liaison officers, one from each of the services. These officers are responsible for liaison with commanding officers and transmission to them of instructions and information as to the taking of the service vote.

Notice of Election

As soon as the liaison officer has formally notified the commanding officer that a general election has been called, the latter is required to publish a special notice as part of *Daily Orders*. The notice is prescribed by *The Canadian Forces Voting Regulations* and reads as on page 11.

NOTICE TO CANADIAN FORCES ELECTORS THAT A GENERAL ELECTION HAS BEEN ORDERED IN CANADA

"Notice is hereby given that writs have been issued ordering that a general election be held in Canada, and that the date fixed as polling day is Monday the 10th day of August 1953.

"Notice is further given that pursuant to The Canadian Forces Voting Regulations, all Canadian Forces electors, as defined in paragraph twenty-one of the said Regulations, are entitled to vote at such general election upon application to any deputy returning officer designated for the purpose of taking such votes.

"And that voting by Canadian Forces electors will take place on each of the six days from Monday, the 3rd day of August 1953, to Saturday, the 8th day of August 1953, both inclusive.

"And that a notice giving the exact location of each voting place established in the units under my command, together with the hours fixed for voting on each day in such voting places, will be published in Daily Orders during the whole of the above mentioned voting period.

"Given under my hand at.....this.....

day of..... 19.....

.....

Commanding Officer"

Commanding Officers' Duties

The commanding officer must allow at least three hours in each day for the taking of the service vote and he is required to afford all necessary facilities to the electors attached to his unit to enable them to vote.

The commanding officer designates a Canadian forces elector to act as a deputy returning officer for his unit. As soon as this is done the civilian special returning officer is advised of the person so designated.

Within two weeks of the publication of a notice in *Daily Orders* about the forthcoming general election each commanding officer, through the liaison officer, must furnish to the civilian special returning officer for the appropriate voting territory a list of the names, ranks, numbers and places of ordinary residence of Canadian forces electors attached to his unit. A copy of this list must also be furnished to the deputy returning officer. At any reasonable time during an election, this list and the *Statements of Ordinary Residence* completed by the electors attached to the unit are open to inspection by any of the officially nominated candidates or their accredited representatives.

At least two days before voting commences a further entry is published in *Daily Orders* showing the days and dates upon which service votes may be cast, the location of the voting places at the unit and the hours of voting.

Deputy Returning Officers

Deputy returning officers are required to have a copy of the voting regulations, a book of key maps, a book of excerpts from the *Canadian Postal Guide* and a printed list of the full names of the candidates. All this material is open to the Canadian forces electors. It enables them to determine in which constituency their vote is to be counted and the candidates who are standing for election in that constituency. At least two copies of the instructions to the Canadian forces electors are posted in conspicuous places in the voting place.

Election Procedure

When a Canadian forces elector wishes to cast his vote he is first required to complete a form printed on the back of an outer envelope. On this form he declares his name, rank and number; he states that he is a Canadian citizen or other British subject; if applicable, that he has attained the full age of twenty-one years and that he has not previously voted. He gives the place of his ordinary residence as prescribed by the voting regulations. He declares the statements to be true, dates and signs the form. The deputy returning officer certifies that the elector did in fact make the declaration and countersigns the form. It is the duty of the deputy returning officer to see that the place of ordinary residence specified in this form is the same as that specified by the elector in

his *Statement of Ordinary Residence*. This is normally done by comparison with the list supplied to the deputy returning officer by the commanding officer. If it appears that no statement was ever signed by the elector, then a special form may be made out by him, but in this case he may only specify as his place of ordinary residence the place in Canada where he was residing immediately prior to his enrolment.

Officers and men who are away from their unit on leave or on duty may vote on producing documentary proof of their leave or duty status and by completing the form on the back of the outer envelope or the special form if it is applicable. Any person whose right to vote is challenged is required to make an affidavit of qualification before the deputy returning officer and, if he refuses to do so, he is not allowed to vote nor is he again admitted to the voting place.

Party Scrutineers

Duly accredited representatives of political parties may, if they are themselves qualified to vote at the general election, represent their political parties as scrutineers at the taking of the Canadian forces electors votes.

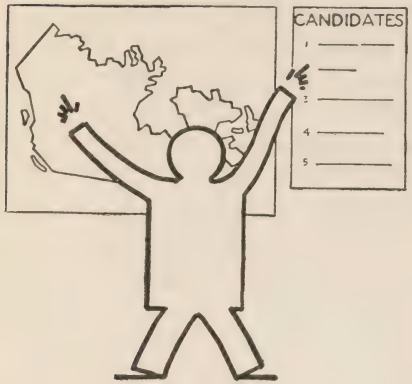
Balloting

When the elector has completed the form on the outer envelope the deputy returning officer hands him a ballot paper. He casts his vote secretly by writing the

first names (or initials) and surname of the candidate of his choice upon the ballot paper. The elector then folds the ballot paper and receives from the deputy returning officer an inner envelope. The folded ballot paper is then placed within the inner envelope and sealed by the elector, who returns it to the deputy returning officer. The deputy returning officer places the inner envelope with the ballot paper contained in it inside the outer envelope. The outer envelope then is addressed to the civilian special returning officer for the voting territory in which the unit is situated. The outer envelope is sealed by the deputy returning officer and handed to the Canadian forces elector.

The elector is informed that the outer envelope must be despatched so as to reach the civilian special returning officer not later than nine o'clock in the morning on the day following the civilian polling day. Ballot papers received after that time are not counted. If necessary the deputy returning officer furnishes airmail stamps so that the ballot paper may be received on time. Outside Canada, postage is paid by the civilian special returning officer. In Canada, the outer envelope and its contents are carried postage free except when airmail stamps are necessary. The elector is then directed to the nearest mail box in which he places the outer envelope and its contents. As a matter of convenience, special mail boxes are provided at the voting places of major units or in isolated localities.

HOW YOU VOTE



1. Check name of your constituency and names of candidates



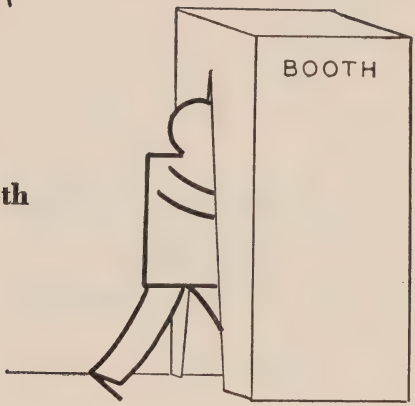
2. Get outer envelope from deputy returning officer and fill out form on back



3. Deputy returning officer signs certificate on outer envelope



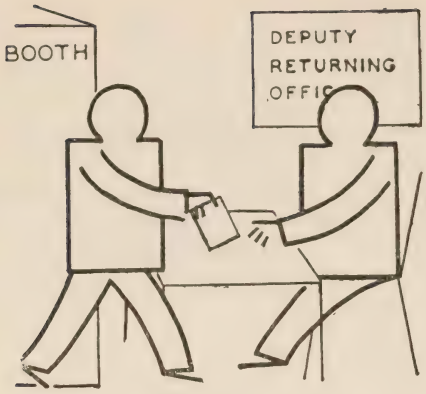
4. Get ballot paper from deputy returning officer



5. Go into booth



6. Write on ballot name of candidate you vote for



7. Fold ballot and go back to deputy returning officer

8. Put folded ballot in plain inner envelope provided





9. Seal flap of inner envelope



10. **Deputy returning officer puts plain inner envelope containing ballot inside outer envelope and seals it**

11. **Deputy returning officer gives sealed and addressed outer envelope to service voter**





12. **You mail it yourself *immediately* in nearest mail box**

Voting as a Civilian

The ordinary residence of the service man for this purpose is that specified by him in his *Statement of Ordinary Residence* completed according to the service voting regulations.

It is not necessary for a Canadian forces elector to vote at a poll established under *The Canadian Forces Voting Regulations* if he is entitled, apart from those regulations, to vote as a civilian elector. *He may not, of course, vote more than once in any event.* To vote as a civilian elector a service man must qualify as such. He must be a Canadian citizen or other British subject who has resided in Canada for twelve months or more and, unless he has served on active service since September 9, 1950, he must be twenty-one years of age. In addition, in an urban polling division, his name must appear on the urban list of electors prepared for that polling division: in a rural polling division his name must either appear on the rural list prepared for that polling division or he must be vouched for by an elector whose name does appear on the official list of electors for that polling division and who is ordinarily resident therein. He must be ordinarily resident in the place where the enumeration is held.

Wives and Dependents

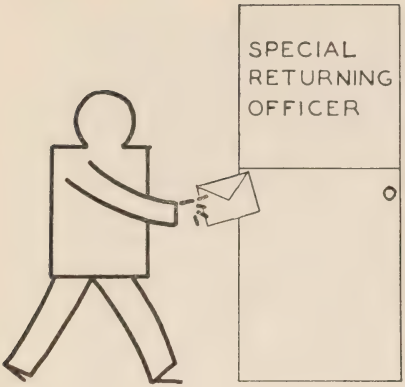
Wives and dependents of service men are not governed by *The Canadian Forces Voting Regulations.* They vote as ordinary civilians. However, there is one

modification if on the day of the issue of the writs ordering a general election, they occupy residential quarters in Canada, including married quarters, as a result of the services performed by the service men in the Canadian forces. In that case, they are considered as ordinarily resident in the place where the quarters are, regardless of the length of time they have occupied them. There are no provisions made to take the votes of wives and dependents of Canadian forces electors, who are living outside Canada where Canadian forces electors are serving.

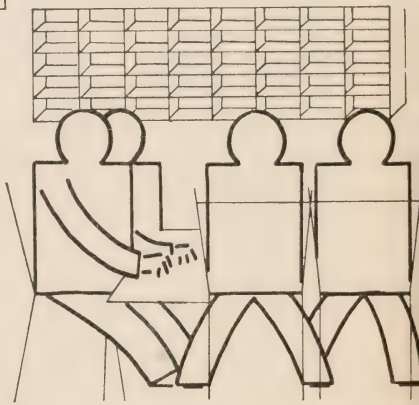
Secrecy of the Ballot

The secrecy of the votes cast by Canadian forces electors is fully safeguarded. The regulations provide as much protection for the secrecy of the ballot of the service voter as does the procedure prescribed in the *Canada Elections Act* for the taking of votes for civilian electors. When the outer envelope arrives at the headquarters of the civilian special returning officer it is not opened. It is sorted to its proper electoral district by pairs of civilian scrutineers who represent different political interests. At the end of each day all sorted outer envelopes are placed unopened in special large envelopes which are sealed with gummed paper seals to which two civilian scrutineers affix their signatures. These sealed envelopes are kept in a safe place and subject to examination by civilian scrutineers at any time before the counting of the votes is completed.

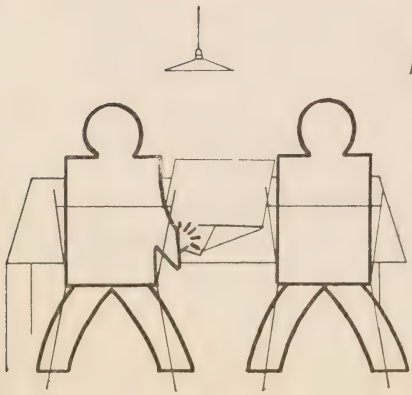
COUNTING YOUR VOTE



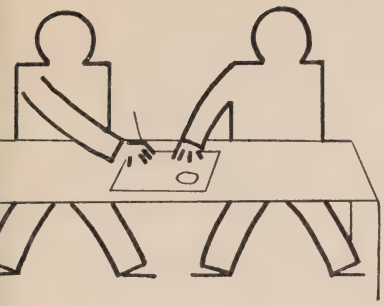
A. Your ballot is delivered to the special returning officer's headquarters



B. Pairs of scrutineers sort unopened outer envelopes



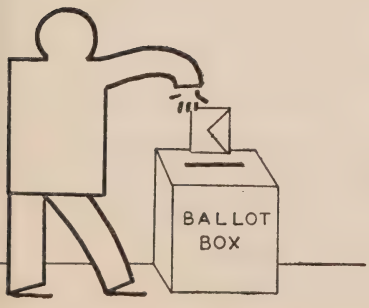
C. Outer envelopes for your constituency are placed in one large envelope



D. Large envelopes are sealed and countersigned by the scrutineers



E. They are stored in a safe place until needed for counting

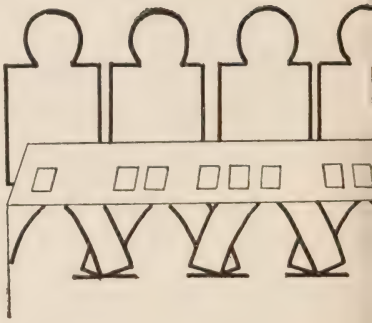


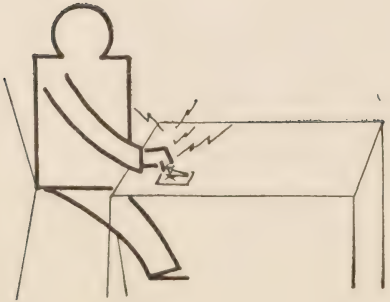
F. Outer envelopes are emptied and unmarked sealed inner envelopes are put in ballot box



G. Untraceable inner envelopes are dumped out of ballot box

H. Ballots are taken out of envelopes and counted





I. Results are tabulated and forwarded to Chief Electoral Officer

Counting the Votes

On the day following the civilian polling day the counting of votes begins. All outer envelopes received in the office of the special returning officer before 0900 hrs. standard time are counted. The counting is carried out, one electoral district at a time, by a pair of civilian scrutineers representing different political interests. All the outer envelopes sorted for each electoral district in turn are opened and the inner envelopes containing the folded ballot papers are immediately placed unopened in a ballot box. When this has been done the ballot box is emptied. The plain inner envelopes are then opened and the ballot papers are counted for the candidates in whose favour they have been marked. It is impossible at any stage of the taking of the service vote to read the declaration on the back of the outer envelope in conjunction with the marked ballot paper that is in the inner envelope unless an indictable offence is committed during the transmission of the outer envelope in the mail or in the headquarters of the special returning officer. The adequacy of the protection afforded to safeguard the secrecy of the vote has been amply demonstrated in previous elections.

Since the early part of the nineteenth century there have been regulations forbidding political activities on defence establishments of the United Kingdom forces.

Canada has adopted the same policy and the Canadian regulations are essentially the same as those in effect for the forces of the United Kingdom and can be traced back to 1922 for the Navy, to 1835 for the Army and to 1924 for the Air Force. Under these regulations, which are embodied in *Queen's Regulations* for each of the Canadian services, commanding officers may not allow political meetings or political speeches on their stations or units. They are also forbidden to allow candidates, political agents and canvassers to visit their stations or units for the purpose of carrying on political activities. An exception to this is, of course, that under service voting regulations representatives of political parties may be present at the actual taking of the service vote and may inspect the list of the Canadian forces electors and their *Statements of Ordinary Residence.* Officers and men of the regular forces are prohibited from taking any active part in the affairs of any political organization or party. This, of course, does not preclude them from attending political meetings held off the station or receiving political pamphlets and other material relating to party platforms and the views of candidates. In any case, where the service address of the Canadian forces elector is known, such material may be sent through the mail to him at his service address.

The restriction on political activities at stations and units prevents the commanding officer permitting any political meetings or activities to be carried on in married

quarters. This restriction applies whether or not the married quarters are within the confines of the main station or unit, since all married quarters even though separated from station headquarters by some distance form a part of the station for which the commanding officer is responsible.

The voting regulations were adopted by the Parliament of Canada as a fair and adequate means of taking the votes of all Canadian forces electors and every care is taken to give an opportunity to all who are entitled to vote to exercise their franchise.

How to use this . . . PAMPHLET

The Service Man and His Vote

This is Article No. 4 in the Citizenship Series of Current Affairs pamphlets.

Read this pamphlet carefully several times and make notes. Underline those points you particularly wish to stress. In making notes keep in mind the main purpose of the discussion topic.

I. PURPOSE:

The purpose of this pamphlet is to show the Canadian service man or woman how voting is conducted in the armed services during a general election.

II. DISCUSSION HOUR PLAN:

It is essential that your Discussion Hour be planned around an outline. It is better if you construct your own but you might follow the form suggested below. There are different methods of conducting the Dis-

cussion Hour such as the conference, the committee and the panel methods. The form of outline below is used in the conference method.

1. **Introduction** (2-3 minutes):—
   i. Mention news events connected with this topic.
   ii. Relate this topic to other topics in the Current Affairs series.

2. **Leader's Presentation** (15-20 minutes):—
   Write main points on the blackboard.
   i. The service man or woman has the right to vote and the duty to vote.
   ii. For the service man or woman, as for everybody else, there are citizenship, age and residence qualifications.
   iii. It is important to have a *Statement of Ordinary Residence* properly completed.
   iv. A notice about the election must be published in *Daily Orders*.
   v. Machinery for taking, counting and despatching the votes to the appropriate constituencies is set up.
   vi. Safeguards are taken to ensure that the election is properly conducted.
   vii. The secrecy of the ballot is assured.
   viii. Political meetings and speeches on service establishments are forbidden.

3. **Discussion Questions** (30-35 minutes):—

   The following questions have been prepared but they are intended as examples only. You should make your own questions.

   i. Why is it important to vote?

   ii. How does the Canadian voting system differ from that of totalitarian states?

   iii. How is the secrecy of the service voter's ballot protected?

   iv. Why is a *Statement of Ordinary Residence* necessary?

4. **Summary:**—

   i. Summarize the main points brought out in the Discussion Hour, keeping in mind the purpose of this discussion topic as stated above.

   ii. Announce the topic for next week and suggest available references, particularly previous Current Affairs and Citizenship pamphlets.

III. **AND REMEMBER . . .**

1. The Discussion Hour should be held in a room that is physically comfortable.
2. Make sure you have the right kind of equipment in the right place before you need it:—
   i. blackboard, chalk and eraser in the room where the discussion is to take place;

ii. reference books, periodicals, etc., in the Unit Library.

iii. suitable projector, screen, films and film-strips which you may be able to obtain, maps and charts.

3. Keep the size of your group to less than thirty.

4. Make constant use of any available visual aids.

5. Use notes if you must, but you will be more effective without them.

6. Do not read to your group.

7. Ample opportunity must be given for all-round discussion. The Discussion Hour is not a question-answer period.

8. Do not let one or two individuals monopolize the whole of the time.

9. Remind the group when necessary, to keep to the matter under discussion.

10. Ask questions of individuals and encourage spontaneous contributions.

Bulletin Board

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BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA — CANADA

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No. 5 in Citizenship Series

FOR THE CANADIAN FORCES

The fifth of a series of pamphlets on Canadian Citizenship by outstanding authorities, prepared especially for the armed forces by the Bureau of Current Affairs.

The Public Service of Canada

BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, CANADA

INTRODUCTION

In a foreword to the first of the regular series of *Current Affairs* pamphlets issued in October, 1951, the Minister of National Defence, the Hon. Brooke Claxton, stated that service personnel "should know as much as possible about Canada . . .".

Accordingly, the Bureau of Current Affairs has initiated a series of citizenship pamphlets of which this one, *The Public Service of Canada,* is the fifth. It explains what the public service is, how it is organized and what it does. It discusses some of the questions that are frequently raised about it. It shows how the Department of National Defence fits into the general pattern of the public service and outlines the structure of the Department.

The material contained in this pamphlet, describing as it does the work of the executive branch of government, supplements the material in the other pamphlets in this series which deal with other aspects of the Canadian constitution. It is as necessary to know how the law is carried out as to know how it is made.

A knowledge of the subject-matter of this pamphlet is, therefore, essential to an understanding of Canadian democracy—the system in which Canadians believe and which Canadian service personnel are pledged to defend.

HARRY R. LOW
Director, Bureau of Current Affairs

The Public Service of Canada

By Don Rowat

You who are members of the armed services already know a good deal about the public service of Canada. After all, you are a very important part of it. Whether you are in the Navy, Army, or Air Force you belong to an arm of one of its biggest branches, the Department of National Defence. But the government engages in a great many activities and its organization is big and complex. So it is hard for any one person to know just where he fits into the vast jig-saw puzzle known as the public service of Canada.

You perhaps know something about the Department of Defence Production whose job it is to ensure that equipment is available for the armed services, and you probably know at least the names of many other departments and agencies of the government. But what are they like and what do they do? In other words, what *is* this public service of which you are a part? How big is it? How is it organized? And how do the armed services fit into the picture?

What is the Public Service?

You have probably heard it said that there is considerable "red tape" connected with the operations of government. Is this true? If so, why?

And you are no doubt acutely aware of the fact that, no matter where you are in the world, on what level you operate, you are linked by an invisible chain of command that extends back to "Headquarters" in Ottawa. From here come the policies, plans, directives, orders and commands that determine your daily life. As you look up from the foundations of the vast pyramid of which you are a part, it may look like a pretty highly centralized set-up, run by a few at the top. And you may wonder, "Is this what the rest of the public service is like? If so, why does it have to be organized like this? In what sense is it democratic?"

These are some of the questions that may be bothering you about the public service of Canada, and the rest of this pamphlet will be devoted to trying to answer them.

Definition

First, we should have a clear idea of just what we are talking about when we refer to the public service of Canada. Sometimes the term "public service" is used to mean the same thing as "civil service". But, strictly

speaking, the civil service includes only public servants under the jurisdiction of the Civil Service Commission, while the term public service, as used here, embraces all appointed direct and indirect employees of the national government, except judges. It includes the armed services, the R.C.M.P., and the employees of all Crown corporations and other agencies that make up the administrative side of government.

Put simply, the public service of Canada is the whole body of people who administer the laws passed by the Parliament of Canada. Under the direction of the Cabinet, which is chosen from and supported by a majority in Parliament, they carry on the day-to-day job of putting these laws into effect.

This job of "putting the laws into effect" sounds like an easy one when you say it quickly. And in the old days, when the doctrine of "laissez-faire"—the less government the better—reigned supreme, it didn't amount to much. But during this century the idea has developed that the state should play a more positive role in society by regulating the economy and by providing for social security. The government's activities have therefore grown to such an extent and have become so complex that the job of carrying out its programs has become of major importance. The laws passed by Parliament saying that henceforth employees would be provided with unemployment insurance and that all families in Canada would receive an allowance for their children, for instance, would have been nothing more than pious hopes

without the help of thousands of expert employees to keep the records, make investigations and pay the claims. Moreover, both the Second World War and the post-war increase in Canada's international responsibilities, both economic and military, have added tremendously to the government's administrative burdens—in terms of provisions for veterans, delegations to international organizations, schemes for increased trade and economic aid to other countries, and especially the recent defence preparedness program with its rapid build-up of the armed services and of defence production.

The result of this growth in government activity is that public servants today are engaged in almost every conceivable kind of work. The Civil Service Commission has listed over 2,000 different kinds of jobs in its area of jurisdiction alone, including every type of specialization and every field of knowledge from the natural sciences to accounting and psychology. And the public service has expanded into a vast network that now employs something like 400,000 full-time employees. This figure reflects the recent build-up in the armed services, which account for over 100,000 of the number, and includes such government-owned enterprises as the Canadian National Railways, whose workers are only indirectly employees of the government. There are, in addition, thousands of part-time and casual employees, whose numbers fluctuate markedly during the year. What may be considered as the civil service proper (salaried employees covered by the Civil Service Act) now numbers about 120,000—nearly three times as large as before the war.

The Pyramid Form

With an organization this size, it is obvious that the problems of co-ordinating and directing the employees' activities toward the objectives laid down by Parliament are tremendous. Generally speaking, the public service has therefore had to be organized in the only effective way so far known to meet these problems of large-scale organization. The employees and their jobs have had to be related on a pyramid basis.

Under this form of organization the largest number of employees is found at the bottom. These are divided into groups, each of which performs only a specialized part of the over-all task and each of which is directed by an officer or supervisor. The supervisors in turn are grouped on a similar basis into sections or divisions and their activities are co-ordinated and directed by a still smaller number of officers. These in turn are grouped into divisions or branches, and so on up the pyramid to a single director at the top. The number of levels depends upon the size of the organization and the number of employees each officer directs. This is the pyramid type of organization in its pure form, and is perfectly familiar to members of the armed services, since military organization represents the closest approach to it in actual

practice. It is also the typical form of organization in business and, in fact, for any large-scale organization requiring the co-ordinated effort of a large number of people. Its chief advantage is that it permits a specialization of labour and at the same time provides a way to co-ordinate and control the activities of all employees so as to achieve the organization's objectives.

For extremely large organizations, however, its disadvantage is the large number of levels required between the top and the bottom of the pyramid. This increases the number of hands through which orders and directions must pass, and slows down action. It also impedes the flow of information upward and makes directors of the organization more remote from the public with which the organization deals. This suggests that there may be a certain size beyond which the pyramid cannot go without breaking down. Fortunately, the pyramid service has to a large extent avoided this problem by being decentralized into a large number of departments and agencies, each of which is a relatively small pyramid in itself.

Nineteen Departments

At the core or centre are the nineteen executive departments. On top of each of these pyramids is a Minister of the Crown, who is responsible for directing

the activities of his particular pyramid in accordance with the wishes of Parliament, and who represents in the Cabinet the area of government activity with which his department is concerned. Most of the departments also have a single Deputy Minister, who is the appointed, non-political and expert head of the department as contrasted with the elected, political and non-specialist Minister. Although the larger departments have Associate or Assistant Deputy Ministers, the Departments of National Health and Welfare and National Revenue are unusual in having two Deputy Ministers each, one to head each of the branches into which these departments are divided.

Internally, some departments are organized so that each branch or division administers a different Act of Parliament. And to avoid being remote from the citizens they serve, most departments are themselves decentralized into regional and district offices across the country. As a result, only one out of every four civil servants is actually located in Ottawa.

National Defence

The Department of National Defence, of course, is geographically one of the most decentralized departments. Because it is so large and because it includes the three armed services, it also has a top-level organization peculiar to itself. Since you may not know how the

over-all policies affecting your particular service are decided upon, it is perhaps worth sketching this organization briefly.

At the head of the Department, and responsible for its administration, is the Minister of National Defence. To assist him are an Associate Minister and a Parliamentary Assistant, both of whom, like the Minister are Members of Parliament. The Associate Minister is a member of the Cabinet.

Within the Department, the head of the civilian side is the Deputy Minister of National Defence, assisted by two Associate Deputy Ministers one of whom has to do with financial and other arrangements for the Department and for the Canadian forces in Britain and Europe, including particularly the 27th Canadian Infantry Brigade and the air division of the R.C.A.F.

Responsible for the control and administration of the three services—the Royal Canadian Navy, the Canadian Army and the Royal Canadian Air Force—are the Chief of the Naval Staff, the Chief of the General Staff and the Chief of the Air Staff respectively. They are, of course, responsible to the Minister. The Defence Research Board constitutes another branch—almost a fourth arm of the services—responsible to the Minister. The Chairman of the Defence Research Board is given the status of a Chief of Staff. To secure close co-ordination of research and the needs of the services, the Board includes, besides its full-time Chairman, the Chiefs of Staff,

the Deputy Minister, the President of the National Research Council and seven other members appointed from Canadian universities and industry.

Although under the Canadian constitution the Queen is the Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces, this command, of course, is no longer exercised in person but rather through her representative, the Governor General, who acts on the advice of the Cabinet. Under the system of responsible government now followed by Canada and other countries of the Commonwealth, the executive authority is, in effect, vested in the Cabinet, and both the civil government and the civil law are supreme.

Functions of the Cabinet as regards the armed forces are to approve the amount of money sought each year for defence purposes, to appoint senior officials and officers such as the Deputy Ministers and Chiefs of Staff, to make regulations including Queen's regulations for the three services, to confirm general courts martial, to consider petitions of redress of grievance, to approve plans and programs, and to make major decisions of policy. Members of the Cabinet sitting as "Council" or the "Treasury Board" consider and, if deemed advisable, approve, amongst other things, orders, contracts, and such matters as rates of pay and allowances.

To deal particularly with matters of defence planning, the Cabinet has set up the Cabinet Defence Committee with the Prime Minister as Chairman and the Minister of National Defence as Vice-Chairman. Other members are the Ministers of Defence Production, Finance, External Affairs, Justice and Health. The

Deputy Ministers of Defence, Defence Production, Finance and External Affairs, and the Chiefs of Staff (including the Chairman of the Defence Research Board) usually attend Cabinet Defence Committee meetings.

With regard to the Department itself, a Defence Council has been created to advise the Minister. Its members are the Minister, the Associate Minister, the Parliamentary Assistant, the Deputy Minister, the Associate Deputy Minister, the Chairman of the Chiefs of Staff, the Chiefs of Staff and the Chairman of the Defence Research Board.

On the operational side the top-level committee is the Chiefs of Staff Committee consisting of the three Chiefs of Staff and the Chairman of the Defence Research Board, with the Deputy Minister usually in attendance. The Deputy Ministers of External Affairs and Finance or their representatives also attend when matters affecting their departments come up for consideration.

Another top-level committee is the Personnel Members Committee consisting of the Chief of Naval Personnel, the Adjutant General and the Air Member for Personnel as well as two representatives of the Deputy Minister. This deals with matters relating to personnel, such as pay, allowances and leave.

The third top-level, tri-service committee is the Principal Supply Officers Committee consisting of the Quartermaster General (Chairman), Chief of Naval Technical Services and the Air Member for Technical

Services, together with a representative of the Deputy Minister as well as the Vice-Chairman of the Defence Research Board.

Subordinate to these committees are various Inter-Service Committees dealing with matters of common concern to the three services, such as pay, standards of service, clothing, and cadet training.

As you can see, the purpose behind this extensive use of committees and interlocking type of organization has been to achieve close co-ordination of the administrative and research branches and the three military branches of the Department.

Agencies

Besides the departments, which account for most of the employees ordinarily referred to as the civil service, there has been created a large number of agencies more or less independent of the departments to which they may be attached and of the Ministers through whom they report to Parliament.

There is such a wide variety in their degree of independence, their form of organization, their size and their functions that it is almost impossible to deal with them as a group. However, certain generalizations may be

made. In the first place, although their internal organization is usually in the familiar pyramid pattern, the pyramid is nearly always directed by a group of persons, called a board or commission, rather than by a single individual.

Some have been separated from the central departmental structure because of the belief that the nature of their work requires this. Hence, their degree of independence may depend upon the strength of this belief. It is obvious, for example, that this has been an important factor in the large amount of independence enjoyed by the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation.

In the case of agencies which operate enterprises comparable with those of private business, however, a reason for their independence is the belief that they should be organized and run in much the same way as a business. Although owned by the government, they therefore take the form of Crown corporations or companies operated by government-appointed boards of directors, and enjoy a large measure of freedom with regard to finance and internal management. The Canadian National Railways, for example, makes its own contracts, hires its own employees and is managed in much the same way as the Canadian Pacific Railway.

Finally, it should be noted that none of the agencies is entirely exempt from Cabinet supervision (except the office of the Auditor General, who is directly responsible to Parliament). Frequently matters such as the borrowing of money have to be approved by the Cabinet or the relevant Minister. And, though not directing their

activities, the Cabinet does take responsibility for deciding major policies affecting them. This is why they may be classed as only semi-independent.

This, then, indicates very broadly how the public service is organized. The organization chart will help give a clearer picture of how the Ministries, the departments and various agencies are related to Parliament. This chart includes, besides the departments, about forty of the more important agencies, and indicates the Ministers through whom they report.

Size

Some idea of the relative sizes of the various departments and agencies may be gained from the table on p. 32. You may not be surprised to find that the Department of National Defence, including the armed services, has the largest number of employees (with about 130,000 service and civilian personnel in August, 1952, including nearly 20,000 prevailing-rate and casual labourers). But you probably didn't realize that the Canadian National Railways (with something like 120,000 employees) is almost as large as this Department or that the agencies, including the C.N.R., employ over 40 per cent of all governmental employees.

This last statement, however, should be qualified with the note that the dividing line between departmental and agency employees is not at all clear-cut. Some agencies are closely related to their departments and are normally regarded as departmental branches (for example, the Penitentiaries Commission). Others, though less closely related, are often considered part of their departments (for example, the Bureau of Statistics). Counting the latter part of the departments to which they are attached would, of course, reduce the total for the agencies and change somewhat the relative sizes of the departments. The variation in the number of casual employees from month to month also affects the totals and relative sizes. During the Christmas season, for example, the Post Office Department hires about 25,000 additional workers. The table shows employees in a summer month, when the number of seasonal workers in several departments is high.

It will be observed that the departments and agencies vary greatly in size. Next to National Defence the largest department is the Post Office. It has nearly 19,000 civil servants and over 14,000 postmasters and their assistants, a large proportion of whom are only part-time employees in small post offices. Next is Veterans Affairs (with over 13,500 employees) and then the Department of National Revenue (with about 12,700). Aside from the C.N.R., the largest agencies are the Unemployment Insurance Commission (with over 7,200 employees), Canadian Arsenals Ltd. (now approaching

7,000 and still growing), Trans-Canada Airlines (with about 5,000), and the R.C.M.P. (with over 800 civilians and nearly 5,000 police).*

Size, however, is by no means an invariable indicator of importance. Among the departments, for example, Finance, Defence Production, Trade and Commerce, and External Affairs, though with relatively few employees, have large numbers of senior personnel and deal with key matters of economic and international policy. Similarly with the agencies, the Civil Service Commission (with about 550 employees) and the Board of Transport Commissioners (with only about 160) exert an influence out of all proportion to the size of their administrative staffs.

The Major Problem

The major problem created by having the public service organized as a series of smaller pyramids rather than a single, giant pyramid is that of co-ordinating and controlling the activities of the separate departments and agencies. Under the parliamentary system this problem is solved in part by having the Ministers meet as a group in the Cabinet to discuss their differences and to unify

* But a considerable proportion of the R.C.M.P. may be regarded as provincial employees, since by special agreement they also enforce provincial laws, and have replaced the provincial police in all provinces except Ontario and Quebec.

their policies. And to co-ordinate programs involving the activities of several departments, special inter-departmental committees may be used. An important one at present is the already-mentioned Cabinet Committee on Defence, composed of Ministers of departments concerned with the defence program.

To co-ordinate and control certain aspects of the internal management of all departments are such bodies as the Treasury Board, the Office of Comptroller of the Treasury, the Auditor General's Office, which control finances, and the Civil Service Commission, which controls personnel and advises on organization. The Treasury Board itself is a committee of the Cabinet whose main function is to review critically each department's requests for funds in relation to the needs of all departments and, if necessary, to scale down such requests before they are placed before Parliament for approval. Its Chairman is the Minister of Finance. The Comptroller of the Treasury, on the other hand, is an appointed officer who controls the actual day-to-day spending by departments *after* the necessary over-all amounts have been approved by Parliament. Since all departments spend money, the job of ensuring that all expenditures have been authorized by Parliament and of preventing over-expenditures is a tremendous one requiring representatives in every department. When one adds to this the job of actually issuing all the cheques, it is not surprising that the Comptroller has a total staff of over 4,000.

In a class by itself is the Auditor General's Office. This office audits the public accounts after the money has been spent and reports any irregularities directly to Parliament. Because of its independence from the Government of the day, it is an important aid to Parliament in checking the activities of the administration.

The Civil Service Commission is responsible for appointing permanent and temporary personnel in all departments and agencies under its control. The tasks that departments perform today are too complex and too important to be left in the hands of a civil service haphazardly recruited. In the old days this need was not so obvious, and even as late as the beginning of this century there was a wholesale turnover of civil servants when a new party and Government came into power. Now, however, appointments to the civil service are made on the basis of merit, usually through nationally advertised, competitive examinations. The Commission also determines policies governing promotions, is responsible for classification of positions, and makes recommendations to the Government with respect to salary schedules and departmental establishments.

Many of the agencies do not come under the financial and personnel control of these supervisory bodies. An important indicator of their degree of independence is whether or not they do. For example, some are partially exempt from the control of the Civil Service Commission, while others, including some of the largest, are entirely exempt from that control.

What Does It Do?

Functions

A short answer to the complex question is that the public service does what the laws passed by Parliament permit or require it to do. If, for example, Parliament has passed a law saying that disabled veterans will receive pensions, or that films must be made to inform people about Canada, then part of the public service will be found devoting its energies to paying pensions or making films. The public service, then, will be found carrying on activities in every field of human endeavour about which the Federal Government has passed laws—a very tall order indeed!

But it is worthwhile to keep in mind that under our Federal Constitution there are certain important subjects, such as education, about which the national government may not pass laws, and certain others, such as agriculture, that it shares with the provinces. This explains why you will find large Departments of Agriculture at both the national and provincial levels of government, but no national Department of Education.

The departments have been largely organized and named on the basis of large areas of subject-matter with which Parliament has dealt in the form of law. Thus the

Department of Labour is responsible for implementing a whole series of Acts designed to improve labour relations and working conditions, the Department of Trade and Commerce for a series designed to promote domestic and international trade, the Department of National Health and Welfare for a series designed to preserve health and social welfare, and so on. The agencies, on the other hand, are usually restricted in their scope to particular subjects with which Parliament has dealt. Thus, the main job of the Canadian Wheat Board is to sell wheat for the farmers, that of the Canadian Pension Commission is to pay pensions for disability or death from military service, that of the National Harbours Board is to operate the harbours in the principal ocean ports, that of Polymer Corporation Limited is to make and sell synthetic rubber, and so on.

Types

The wide variety of functions possessed by the agencies makes it difficult to give an adequate over-all picture of what they do. However, it is possible to classify them into broad groups according to the type of activity in which they engage. In the largest group are the *administrative agencies*—those which, like the departments, carry out governmental programs. Examples are

the National Film Board and the Unemployment Insurance Commission. A much smaller, but none the less important, group are the *regulatory* agencies—those which mainly regulate or supervise private economic activities in the public interest. Examples are the Board of Transport Commissioners and the Board of Grain Commissioners. Closely related to these are what might be called *operating* agencies—those which actually engage in economic activities. Many of these are much like private businesses and represent enterprises which the Government has found it necessary to own and operate in the public interest. Trans-Canada Airlines and Canadian Arsenals Limited are examples.

In another group are the *advisory* agencies—those which mainly advise the Government on certain matters of policy. In this category are the National Advisory Council on Manpower and the Fisheries Research Board. Some agencies, however, defy classification because they engage in a variety of activities. Thus the National Research Council not only advises on but also directs the Government's far-reaching program of scientific and industrial research. The Canadian Broadcasting Corporation both regulates private broadcasters and operates its own radio and television broadcasting system. And the Tariff Board not only regulates the application of tariffs in individual cases but also advises the Government from time to time on changes in the tariffs.

Some idea of the total range of matters with which the public service deals may be gained by simply glancing

at the names of all the departments and agencies listed on the chart. But these frequently tell us little about the actual type of activity involved. The functions of the departments and of the more important agencies are therefore summarized briefly in Appendix III. To save space, agencies whose functions have been described elsewhere have been omitted.

Red Tape

In our casual, everyday conversation it is popular to associate very closely the words "government" and "red tape". The phrase is meant to imply excessive routine and paper work and consequent inefficiency, delay, reluctance to make a decision, and the rigid application of rules to individual cases. One of our favourite pictures of the public service is that of a dense jungle of red tape which public officials only half-heartedly try to hack their way through.

Those of us who have had close contacts with government departments know that this popular picture is greatly overdrawn, that it is just a caricature of the real public service. The most important reason for this distortion, I think, is that almost every governmental program adversely affects some group. Such groups then

try to justify their opposition to the government doing something they dislike by saying that it can't do anything well. They exaggerate every fault they can find with the government service and try to persuade others to their way of thinking.

Size and Complexity

An obvious reason for red tape in the public service —yet one that its critics often fail to appreciate—is the sheer size and complexity of the job that the Government is trying to do. The resulting problems of co-ordination and control are such as those that face any large-scale organization, whether public or private. Yet since the Government of Canada is by far and away the biggest single enterprise in the country, these problems are that much more difficult to solve.

Those who argue that the public service should be more "business-like" forget that giant private corporations suffer from much the same problems of red tape. Any large organization is noted for the impersonal nature of its dealings with its customers or its public. Those at the top cannot deal personally with the thousands of persons with whom the organization comes into contact. They must instead lay down general rules and handle only

unusual cases. As a result, they tend to deal mostly with paper, far removed from the actualities of real life. And those at the bottom, who do not have the power to change the rules, must either apply them rigidly or refer cases higher up for decision. They may not even know the rules or understand their meaning, and tend to lose touch with the objectives of the organization. Passing the buck is by no means a disease peculiar to public administration.

There are some causes of red tape, however, which *are* peculiar to public administration. These it should be stressed, are not just characteristic of the public service of Canada, but of the administrative side of democratic government generally.

Accountability

The most important of these causes is the control exerted over the public service in a democracy. This requires all manner of unavoidably cumbersome financial and other procedures designed to hold public servants accountable for what they do. Public servants are acutely aware of the fact that they are expected to make just and impartial decisions and that if they don't they may be criticized. Sometimes they are criticized even when they do. They must therefore keep copious records

in order to explain and justify their actions. Since they are living in a "fish bowl" where every act is apt to be seen and noted, some, instead of making bold decisions, are tempted to hide behind a precedent or the exact letter of the law.

Government departments must also submit to many restrictions in selecting and directing personnel which would be considered intolerable in a private company. The possibility that political influences will be used to affect the appointment or the subsequent careers of civil servants can never be forgotten. And civil service rules must therefore often sacrifice efficiency in order to obtain strict and rigid neutrality.

"The result", as Professor Dawson has pointed out in *The Civil Service of Canada,* "is officialism and red tape, all of which is popularly denounced, most of which is regrettably necessary. Those critics who expect to run a public department like an oil company fail to realize that the faults in the service of which they complain are due in a large measure to the requirements of parliamentary government, and are 'part of the price paid for the advantages of public discussion and criticism of public affairs'. If the people's representatives insist on supervising and questioning the work of the civil service (and this must be done in order to avoid bureaucratic government), then they must be prepared to forego a certain amount of speed and economy in order to maintain their control."

The Problem of Efficiency

Efficiency

Another cause of red tape in the public service arises from the fact that it is a monopoly. It has no business rivals to stimulate it into efficiency in the fight for economic survival. And its employees often do not have as an incentive to surpass their fellows the prospect of a better job elsewhere. Some of them have such highly specialized jobs that opportunities for similar employment do not arise outside the service.

Closely related to this is the lack of a clear-cut basis for measuring efficiency. While the profit of a competitive business provides an automatic measure of efficiency, government departments exist primarily to render a public service. A credit balance at the end of the year is irrelevant and the problem is to measure the amount of service rendered for a given amount of money. The results of many broad governmental programs cannot be measured in this way. How can the government tell, for example, whether preparedness is more efficiently served by adding an extra aircraft to the air force instead of spending the same amount of money for more guns?

It *is* possible, however, to measure efficiency at the lower levels of administration where the objectives are more specific, and especially when physical units are

involved. When, for example, the question is not how to defend Canada at the least cost, but rather how to turn out aircraft or equip soldiers at the least cost, it is quite possible to work out measures of efficiency that are based on cost accounting.

Although the lack of drive for efficiency and the difficulty of measuring efficiency are said to be characteristics of public administration, it is perhaps worth pointing out that they apply equally well to monopolies in private business. It should also be noted that a governmental substitute for the profit motive found in competitive business is the vigorous competition of individual departments for a slice of the taxpayer's dollar in their submissions to the Treasury Board. And an important part of Treasury Board's job is to show a department how it can render greater service with the same amount of money—in other words, how it can become more efficient. The Treasury Board and its staff are becoming increasingly conscious of this important function.

The Civil Service Commission, too, is doing much to remove unnecessary red tape and to improve efficiency. It has the positive job of selecting the ablest candidates for public office, encouraging and promoting the best, and improving the performance and morale of all civil servants through a widespread training program. It has also created a comprehensive organization and methods service designed to study, develop and advise the departments on more efficient methods, procedures and organiz-

ation. Already this service has paid for itself many times over through the savings brought about by its recommendations. As a result of the efforts of these and other efficiency experts one finds that in many respects the government is now more "business-like" than a good many businesses, and that on some things it can actually show the way to private industry.

No matter how much is done to eliminate red tape, however, like death and taxes it will always be with us, simply because much of it is a necessary evil of large-scale organizations and of democratic government. If we want things done in an organized way and in a democratic society, then we must be prepared to wrestle with a certain amount of red tape.

Bureaucratic?

To the political scientist "bureaucracy" usually means a centralized system of government under which the citizens are arbitrarily controlled by an irresponsible class of officials. But the critics of government in democratic countries, for much the same reasons as they have given us the exaggerated picture of red tape, have adopted the word "bureaucratic" and use it to describe our own public service. What they have in mind, of course, is red

tape. They are annoyed about it and do not realize that it is a necessary part of democratic control. But to call the system bureaucratic is most unfair and indicates that they do not understand the difference between unavoidable red tape and real bureaucracy.

Yet "bureaucratic" has been used so frequently in association with "red tape" that now the word bureaucracy is often used to mean simply the administrative side of any government. It has become what you might call a "weasel word"—one so slippery that, as Alice in Wonderland said, it can mean anything you want it to. Since the critics always use the word in its uncomplimentary sense, it is worth pointing out that the public service is not really bureaucratic in this sense.

It is true that, internally, those at the bottom of the departmental pyramids are controlled by a few officials at the top. But this is merely a necessary, though unfortunate, consequence of large-scale organization. It is quite wrong to infer from this that the system of government as a whole or that the citizens are controlled by a few at the top. In fact it is just the reverse. It is through having the public servants controlled by a few at the top that the citizens, through their representatives in Parliament, are able to control the vast administrative machine known as the public service of Canada. How else could a few hundred representatives in Parliament hold to account the hundreds of thousands of servants which the public employs?

And there is all the difference in the world between a system like ours, where elected representatives of the people direct the activities of public officials, and a totalitarian system in which bureaucrats direct the lives and thoughts of the people and arbitrarily maintain themselves in power.

The real key to this difference is the fact that under our system the topmost directors of the departments and agencies, the Ministers of the Crown, are themselves elected and keep their jobs only so long as they are supported by a majority of the citizens' representatives in Parliament. Provided there are free elections, and an Opposition Party free to criticize the Ministers and to replace them if they lose the people's confidence, we need never fear that the top level of our public service will become bureaucratic. Indeed, one eminent student of our institutions summed up his conclusions on this question as follows: "The Canadian service can hardly be censured as an arrogant bureaucracy, lusting for power; it has been too fearful of political intervention and too uncertain of itself to exhibit the desire to dominate. In the past it might more often have been charged with timidity." *

Donald C. Rowat, Assistant Professor of Political Science at Carleton College, Ottawa, has written articles on Canadian government, and in 1949 prepared a *Report on the Reorganization of Provincial Municipal Relations* for the Government of Nova Scotia.

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* A. Brady, *Democracy in the Dominions,* p. 89.

APPENDIX I

GOVERNMENT OF CANADA
EMPLOYEES OF DEPARTMENTS AND AGENCIES

(August, 1952) [1]

DEPARTMENTS		No.
Agriculture		9,140
Citizenship & Immigration		2,449
Defence Production		1,742
External Affairs		1,353
Finance		634
Fisheries		1,714
Justice		1,796
Department	*171*	
Commr. of Penitentiaries	*1,625*	
Labour		637
Mines & Technical Surveys		2,124
National Defence (Civilian)		38,977 [2]
National Health & Welfare		3,616
National Revenue		12,651
Customs & Excise	*6,612*	
Income Tax	*6,039*	
Post Office		33,133
Department	*18,869*	
Small Post Offices	*14,264*	
Public Works		7,173
Resources & Development		3,272
Secretary of State		514
Trade & Commerce		1,179
Transport		12,289
Veterans Affairs		13,553
		147,946
Armed Services		**90,000** [3]
TOTAL DEPTS.		**237,946**

AGENCIES

	No.
Administrative and Regulatory	
Board of Grain Commissioners	873
Civil Service Commission	548
Comptroller of the Treasury	4,084
Defence Research Board	2,408
Dept. Public Printing & Stationery	1,154
Bureau of Statistics	1,894
Parliamentary Staff (House, Senate and Library)	515
National Film Board	556
National Research Council	2,262
Royal Canadian Mounted Police	5,808
Unemployment Insurance Comm.	7,261
Agencies under 500 employees	2,809
	30,172
Government Transport Enterprises	
(Can. Nat. Railways and affiliates, including Trans-Canada Airlines)	130,076
Other Government Enterprises	
Bank of Canada	1,000
Canadian Arsenals Ltd.	5,700
Canadian Broadcasting Corp.	2,000
Cent. Mortgage & Housing Corp.	2,000
National Harbours Board	2,000
Polymer Corporation Ltd.	2,000
Others	4,765
	19,465
TOTAL AGENCIES	**179,713**
TOTAL DEPTS. & AGENCIES	**417,659**

[1] Figures are from *Government of Canada, Employment and Payrolls, Aug. 1952* (Dominion Bureau of Statistics), except those for the armed services and for the individual government enterprises. They include all types of employees—permanent, temporary, prevailing rates and casual. Since official figures for *individual* enterprises are not released, those shown here are rough estimates based on recent annual reports of these enterprises. Included under "Others" are such enterprises as Atomic Energy of Canada Ltd., Canadian Commercial Corporation, Defence Construction Ltd., Eldorado Mining and Refining Ltd., and the Canadian Wheat Board.

[2] In 1953 the number of civilian employees was 42,157.

[3] In 1953 the strength of the armed services increased to 104,000.

APPENDIX II

CHIEF AGENCIES EXEMPT FROM THE CIVIL SERVICE ACT

A. Agencies Entirely Exempt

Atomic Energy of Canada Limited
Bank of Canada
Canadian Arsenals Limited
Canadian Broadcasting Corporation
Canadian Commercial Corporation
Canadian Farm Loan Board
Canadian National Railways
Canadian Wheat Board
Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation
Crown Assets Disposal Corporation
Defence Research Board
Eldorado Mining and Refining Limited
Export Credits Insurance Corporation
Federal District Commission
Fisheries Prices Support Board
Fisheries Research Board
National Harbours Board
National Defence Department, Armed Services
National Research Council
Northern Transportation Limited
Northwest Territories Power Commission
Polymer Corporation Limited
Royal Canadian Mounted Police (except civilian staff)
Trans-Canada Airlines

B. Agencies Partially Exempt

Agriculture Department, Prairie Farm Rehabilitation and Assistance: positions are classified by the Civil Service Commission but incumbents are not selected by this

body; has many seasonal positions not dealt with in any way by the Commission.

Agricultural Prices Support Board: positions are classified by the Civil Service Commission but incumbents are not selected by this body.

Board of Grain Commissioners: is under the Civil Service Commission except for grain elevator operators.

Canadian Maritime Commission: professional and technical advisers and their assistants are not subject to the Civil Service Act.

Chief Electoral Officer: only a minor part of this office is under the Civil Service Commission.

Dominion Coal Board: professional and technical advisers and their assistants are not subject to the Civil Service Act.

House of Commons Staff: only temporary employees appointed for the period of the Session are not subject to the Civil Service Act.

Justice Department, Penitentiaries Branch: only members of the headquarters staff come under the jurisdiction of the Civil Service Commission.

National Film Board: only a minor part of this agency is under the Civil Service Act—about 30 positions transferred there from another part of the Service.

Post Office Department, Small-Revenue Post Offices: where the revenue is below $3,000, the Civil Service Commission has no jurisdiction.

Public Works Department, Maintenance Staff: the numbers of positions and in some instances the types are subject to the Civil Service Commission; the selection of most incumbents is done by the Department.

Senate Staff: as for House of Commons Staff.

APPENDIX III

FUNCTIONS OF THE DEPARTMENTS AND CHIEF AGENCIES

The Departments

Agriculture: this Department, in co-operation with the provinces, carries on research and investigation into agricultural production and processing, regulates grading, helps to improve marketing methods and disseminates information.

Citizenship and Immigration: this Department administers the Canadian Citizenship Act, issues certificates to immigrants in proof of their status as Canadian citizens, helps to develop programs to assist their adjustment to the Canadian way of life, and assists in the integration of the various ethnic groups. It also administers the Immigration and Indian Acts.

Defence Production: obtains military equipment and other supplies required for the defence program, and facilitates their production by mobilizing and co-ordinating industrial facilities and conserving strategic materials. It is also responsible for the implementation of defence construction projects.

External Affairs: supervises relations with the governments of other countries and with international organizations, negotiates international agreements, administers Canadian diplomatic missions abroad, prepares information on international affairs for distribution in Canada and information about Canada for distribution abroad, and issues passports to Canadian citizens.

Finance: supervises public finances and accounts. Its main job is to prepare the annual Budget, which involves a program of taxation and other financial measures designed to provide for expenditures and to regulate the economy. It also raises loans and supervises the making of loans to Crown

corporations, farmers and foreign governments. Considered part of the Department is the Treasury Board's staff, and attached to the Department is the relatively small Department of Insurance, which supervises insurance, loan and trust companies coming under federal laws.

Fisheries: is concerned with conserving and developing fisheries resources, inspecting fish products, and carrying out Canada's obligations under international treaties which deal with salmon and halibut on the Pacific Coast, Alaskan fur, seals, whaling, etc.

Justice: provides legal services for the Government and its departments; superintends all federal matters relating to the administration of justice, including under the Commissioner of Penitentiaries, the prison system; is also responsible for the regulation and conduct of all litigation for or against the Crown.

Labour: administers federal labour legislation concerning industrial relations, wages and hours, annuities, vocational training, etc., does research on these subjects, analyzes the manpower situation, and publishes the *Labour Gazette*.

Mines and Technical Surveys: helps to further the development of mineral resources, prepares official maps and charts, directs geological, topographical, and other surveys of Canada, carries on, through the Dominion Observatories, research in astronomy and related fields, and collects geographical knowledge of Canada and foreign countries.

National Defence: maintains the armed services and is responsible for the control and management of all matters pertaining to the defence of Canada.

National Health and Welfare: dealing only with certain matters over which the federal government has jurisdiction, this Department administers Acts having to do with food and drugs, opium and narcotics, quarantine, family allowances,

old age pensions and grants to the provinces for various health and welfare purposes. It works in close co-operation with similar provincial agencies.

National Revenue: the Customs and Excise Division collects the tariffs, controls the importation of goods, and authorizes the entry and departure of all types of vehicles, while the Taxation Division makes assessments and collects and accounts for the revenues from personal and corporation income taxes and from succession duties.

Post Office: handles the collection and delivery of mail, a money order and savings bank business, and the sale of annuities and unemployment insurance stamps.

Public Works: a centralized service agency for other departments, it constructs and maintains public buildings and marine works, and dredges harbours and navigable channels.

Resources and Development: is concerned with federal government responsibilities for forests, water resources and wildlife; the administration of the Yukon and Northwest Territories, the National Parks and Federal Crown Lands; the tourist industry; and the planning and development of such public projects as the Trans-Canada Highway.

Secretary of State: is in charge of State correspondence, records and papers; registers proclamations, letters patent, and other documents issued under the Great Seal, as well as patents, copyrights and trade-marks, and services other departments with a Translation Bureau.

Trade and Commerce: is mainly concerned with promoting Canada's domestic and foreign trade and predicting economic trends, but is also responsible for inspecting gas, electricity and weights and measures.

Transport: provides marine and canal services, including steamship inspection, lighthouses, and other aids to navigation; air

services, including airports, the control of flying operations and meteorological services, and some radio, telephone and telegraph services.

Veterans Affairs: is responsible for the care, treatment, training, land settlement and general re-establishment in civil life of former members of the armed forces, and for the care of their dependents.

Chief Agencies

Air Transport Board: both an advisory and a regulatory body, this Board investigates and advises on matters relating to civil aviation, issues, subject to Ministerial approval, licences to operate commercial air services, and regulates these services in the public interest.

Atomic Energy of Canada Limited: created in 1952, this agency took over from the National Research Council the operation of the atomic energy project at Chalk River, Ontario. It conducts atomic research and produces radio-isotopes for industrial and medical purposes.

Bank of Canada: regulates credit and currency in the public interest, including the cash reserves of the chartered banks, manages the public debt, issues the currency and generally acts as the fiscal agent of the government.

Board of Grain Commissioners: controls the movement of grain from its arrival at country elevators to its delivery to vessels for export, grades and inspects grain, licenses private elevators, operates government elevators, and conducts research on the quality of grain.

Board of Transport Commissioners: supervises and regulates the construction and operation of railways; telegraph, telephone, railway and express rates; tolls on international bridges and tunnels; the licensing and rates for ships on certain inland waters; and the construction of oil and gas pipelines.

Canadian Maritime Commission: advises the Minister of Transport on the operation and development of the merchant marine and the shipbuilding and repair industries, and also administers certain steamship subventions.

Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation: administers the National Housing Act and promotes the building of new housing of all kinds, mainly through loans to builders or owners of rental projects or private homes.

Defence Research Board: co-ordinates defence research activities and itself conducts research which cannot be assigned to civilian agencies. Generally, its activities are concentrated in special fields for which Canada possesses unique facilities, so that the results may be exchanged for research information from other members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization.

Dominion Coal Board: investigates and reports on the production, importation, and use of coal, and administers certain grants to assist the Canadian coal industry.

Dominion Bureau of Statistics: although administered by the Department of Trade and Commerce, this is a centralized statistical agency which collects, compiles and publishes all manner of statistics pertaining to the government and the economic and social conditions of Canada. These are summarized annually in its comprehensive *Canada Year Book.*

Eldorado Mining and Refining Limited: created during the Second World War and retained for security reasons, this agency is one of the world's largest producers and processors of radium and uranium ore, a source of atomic energy.

National Film Board: makes films, filmstrips, photographs, and other graphic material about Canada, both on its own account and for other departments, which it distributes through commercial and non-commercial channels at home and abroad.

Polymer Corporation Limited: created during the Second World War because of the shortage of natural rubber, and retained for defence reasons, this agency produces and sells synthetic rubber. It now meets about half of Canada's total requirements of new rubber, and sells considerable quantities abroad.

Privy Council Office: prepares Orders in Council and provides a secretariat for the Cabinet, Cabinet committees and senior interdepartmental committees.

Public Printing and Stationery: is a central service agency for the departments, responsible for the printing and sale of nearly all official publications and for supplying stationery to the departments and to Parliament. Although called a department, like the Department of Insurance it is not represented in the Cabinet by a separate Minister.

Unemployment Insurance Commission: administers a system of unemployment insurance, to which employers, insured workers and the government contribute, and provides a national employment service.

For Further Reading

Books

The Civil Service of Canada by R. MacG. Dawson (London: Oxford University Press, 1929).

The Canadian Bureaucracy by Taylor Cole (Durham: Duke University Press, 1949. $5.00).

The Government of Canada by R. MacG. Dawson (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1947. $5.50)—especially Part IV.

Democratic Government and Politics by J. A. Corry (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, Revised edition, 1951. $5.50) —especially Chaps. XV and XVI.

Canadian Government and Politics by H. McD. Clokie (Toronto: Longmans, Green and Company. Revised edition, 1950. $4.00)—especially Chapter VI.

Democracy in the Dominions by A. Brady (Toronto: University of Toronto Press. Revised edition, 1952. $6.00)—especially Chapter IV.

Financing Canadian Government by A. E. Buck (Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1949, $5.00)—especially Chapters II, III, V, VI.

Government Documents and Pamphlets

Forty-Third Annual Report of the Civil Service Commission of Canada (Queen's Printer, 1952. 10 cents).

Training in the Public Service of Canada (A Report, and a Supplementary Report to December, 1950. Staff Training Division, Civil Service Commission).

Civil Service Act as amended (Office Consolidation. Queen's Printer, 1952. 25 cents).

Civil Service Regulations (Office Consolidation. Queen's Printer, 1952. 25 cents).

How to use this . . .
PAMPHLET

THE PUBLIC SERVICE OF CANADA

This is Article No. 5 in the CITIZENSHIP SERIES of CURRENT AFFAIRS pamphlets.

Read this pamphlet carefully several times and make notes. Underline those points you particularly wish to stress. In making notes keep in mind the main purpose of the discussion topic.

I. PURPOSE:

The purpose of this discussion topic is to show what the public service is, how it is organized and what it does.

II. DISCUSSION HOUR PLAN:

It is essential that your Discussion Hour be planned around an outline. It is better if you construct your own but you might follow the form suggested below. There are different methods of conducting the Discussion Hour such as the conference, the committee and the panel methods. The form of outline below is used in the conference method.

1. **Introduction** (2-3 minutes):—
   i. Mention news events connected with this topic.
   ii. Relate this topic to other topics in the *Current Affairs* series.

2. **Leader's Presentation** (15-20 minutes):—
   Write main points on the blackboard.
   i. The public service of Canada is organized in pyramid form, in the same way as any large business enterprise.
   ii. There are nineteen executive departments, the Department of National Defence being one.
   iii. In addition to the Departments there are the semi-independent agencies, e.g., the Canadian National Railways, the Unemployment Insurance Commission, Trans-Canada Airlines.
   iv. In addition to the Cabinet various other means are used to co-ordinate the activities of Departments and Agencies, e.g., Treasury Board, the Civil Service Commission and the Auditor General.
   v. Agencies can be classified as administrative, regulatory, operating and advisory.
   vi. Despite criticism the public service is business-like.

3. **Discussion Questions** (30-35 minutes):—

The following questions have been prepared but they are intended as examples only. You should make your own questions.

i. What is the relationship between the public service and Parliament?

ii. How does the organization of the Department of National Defence differ from that of other Departments?

iii. Why do the semi-independent agencies exist?

iv. What are the chief criticisms of the public service and why are they made?

4. **Summary:—**

i. Summarize the main points brought out in the Discussion Hour, keeping in mind the purpose of this discussion topic as stated above.

ii. Announce the topic for next week and suggest available references, particularly previous *Current Affairs* pamphlets.

III. AND REMEMBER . . .

1. The Discussion Hour should be held in a room that is physically comfortable.
2. Make sure you have the right kind of equipment in the right place before you need it:—

i. blackboard, chalk and eraser in the room where the discussion is to take place;

ii. reference books, periodicals, etc., in the Unit Library;

iii. suitable projector, screen, films and filmstrips which you may be able to obtain, maps and charts.

3. Keep the size of your group to less than thirty.
4. Make constant use of any available visual aids.
5. Use notes if you must, but you will be more effective without them.
6. Do not read to your group.
7. Ample opportunity must be given for all-round discussion. The Discussion Hour is not a question-answer period.
8. Do not let one or two individuals monopolize the whole of the time.
9. Remind the group when necessary, to keep to the matter under discussion.
10. Ask questions of individuals and encourage spontaneous contributions.

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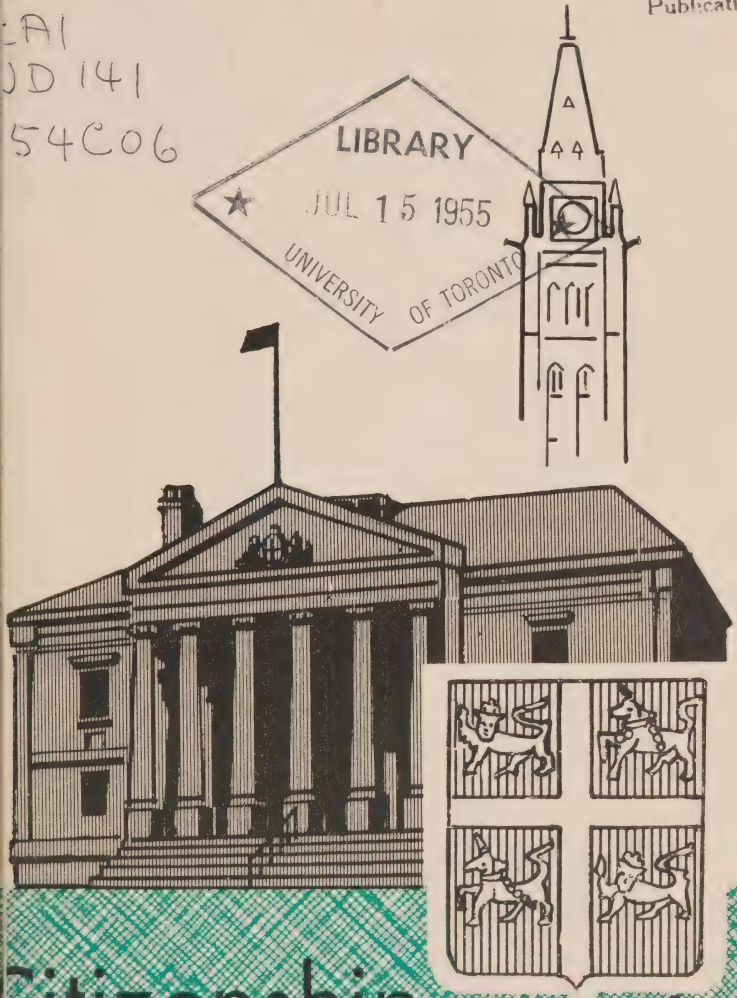
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Citizenship

no. 6

FOR THE CANADIAN FORCES

Government
Publications

The sixth of a series of pamphlets on Canadian Citizenship, prepared especially for the Armed Forces by the Bureau of Current Affairs.

The Province of Newfoundland

No. 6

BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, CANADA

athwart the Eastern Approaches of the continent. And even in the nation which it has now joined, its situation still gives it a strategic position.

The Province of Newfoundland consists of the mainland territory of Labrador and the island at the mouth of the Gulf of St. Lawrence which has borne from the beginning the name of the Province of today. Labrador has an area of 110,000 square miles and the Island of Newfoundland itself 42,734 square miles. The total area of the Province, 152,000 square miles, is greater than New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island combined, and almost two-thirds the extent of each of the three Prairie Provinces.

The Island of Newfoundland is separated from Cape Breton by Cabot Strait, which is 70 miles wide, and from Labrador by the Strait of Belle Isle, which at one point is only 11 miles wide.

Geologically, the island is part of the Appalachian Region of North America, while Labrador is the eastern extension of the Canadian Shield.

The Island of Newfoundland may be regarded as a sloping plateau which drops away gradually from the west and southwest toward sea level in the northeast. It falls into three natural regional divisions known as the Western Uplands, the Central Plateau and the Avalon

Peninsula. The island is rugged without being strikingly mountainous, with a narrow coastal plain between the Western Uplands and the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The highest peak in the Western Uplands reaches 2,763 feet. The Central Plateau ranges from 2,000 down to 1,000 feet above sea level with a surface of undulating, rocky barrens dotted with lakes and small ponds. The Avalon Peninsula, pinched almost to an island by Placentia and Trinity Bays, has for the most part a rough, rocky surface varying between 500 and 1,000 feet above sea level.

Though Newfoundland is one of the world's great pulp and paper producers, its forests cover only two-fifths of the country, mainly in the large river basins. The soils, so far as they have been studied, hold out little hope for major agricultural developments except in a few fortunate localities.

The Island's comparatively rugged surface, sloping into the sea, has produced a deeply indented coastline. The country, approximately a triangle about 300 miles long on each side, has 6,000 miles of coastline.

Most of the people are settled along the bays and inlets. Very few live inland.

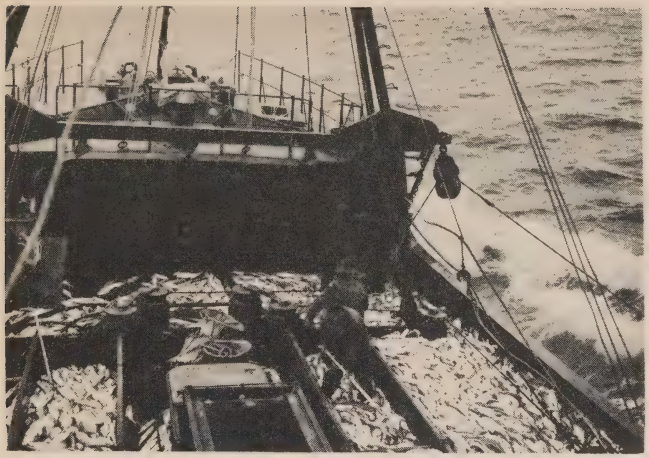
Geographical features which are even more important continue under the surface of the sea. These are the "Banks" which can be regarded, geographically and eco-



Trinity Bay

nomically, if not politically, as the parts of Newfoundland which failed to rise above sea level some millions of years ago. If the Grand Bank could be raised 300 feet, it would appear as an island about 50 or 60 miles south-east of the Avalon Peninsula having an area of 36,000 square miles, or a little less than Newfoundland itself. Newfoundland and the Banks stand on the continental shelf, a region of the western Atlantic where the sea is comparatively shallow before it drops suddenly to depths of nearly two miles. Nearly all of these areas are extra-ordinarily good fishing grounds, and the richest and most famous of them all is the Grand Bank of Newfoundland.

The Island of Newfoundland has cool summers and comparatively few extremes of cold in the winters. The Island is icebound on two of its three sides during part of each winter but the southern coast is open. Ships can



On the Grand Bank

almost always reach St. John's unless pack ice is pushed ashore by southeasterly storms. There is abundant rainfall and the annual snowfall is roughly twice that of Ontario. The Grand Bank has long been noted as one of the foggiest sea areas in the world, but only a hundred miles away at St. John's there are, on the average, only 37 foggy days a year.

Mainland Labrador is very different from the Island of Newfoundland.

It stretches northward from Anse Blanc Sablon on the Gulf of St. Lawrence, near the Strait of Belle Isle,

to Cape Chidley at the entrance to Hudson Strait, a distance of 650 miles. At its maximum width, it extends inland from the Atlantic about 475 miles. The western boundary, fixed by a decision of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in 1927 after generations of dispute, follows the height of land between the rivers draining into the Atlantic and those draining into James, Hudson and Ungava Bays.

In a general way the land surface is in the form of a tilted plateau that is highest in the north and northeast. The Torngat Mountains along the coast between Saglek Fiord and Cape Chidley rise to 5,500 feet, the highest peaks in eastern Canada. The Mealy Mountains which you see when you look from Goose Bay airport to the south of Lake Melville rise to about 4,000 feet above sea level.

The tilt of the Labrador plateau is probably of very great future economic importance. Nowhere else in Canada can one glance down from an airplane on a summer day and see such a fantastically unbelievable amount of undeveloped waterpower. To reach the Atlantic across the tilting plateau, the rivers have had to cut ever-deepening gorges through the ancient rocks. They are fed by many thousands of lakes and ponds formed as the result of the difficult run-off conditions.

One of the world's greatest future power sites is at Grand Falls on the Hamilton River. The Falls itself is more than twice the height of Niagara, and in a 16-mile section of the river, including Grand Falls, the total drop is 1,038 feet. It has been estimated that 4,750,000 h.p. can be developed on the Grand Falls section and an additional 2,130,000 h.p. downstream between there and Goose Bay. The potential power on the one river is thus 6,880,000 h.p., nearly half as much as the present installed hydro-electric horsepower in all of Canada.

While the Hamilton River is the greatest single power source in Labrador, it nevertheless represents only a fraction of the power potential of the region. With the current development of the vast iron deposits on the Quebec-Labrador boundary, there is little doubt that Labrador would be one of the earth's greatest industrial areas if it were not for climatic conditions, which are far from ideal for bathing beauties.

The yearly average temperature for the entire region is below freezing and January mean temperatures, except in the southeast corner, are below zero. July mean temperatures range from 40 to 55 degrees.

The summers are short. There is no Gulf Stream to moderate the chilling effect of the cold Labrador Current as in the case of Newfoundland.

Discovery

It is a fairly good supposition that Norsemen from Greenland visited Labrador and Newfoundland as early as 1001. If the supposition is correct, Labrador was probably the first part of North America to be discovered by Europeans. There is also an ancient story that sailors from the Channel Islands, blown off course, came in the 15th century to a strange land where the sea—perhaps it was over the Grand Bank—was full of fish. In any case, there is no doubt that John Cabot, in the 50-ton ship, the *Matthew,* with a crew of 17, reached Newfoundland and Cape Breton in 1497 and was awarded £10 from the Privy Purse of England for the discovery. Cabot had sailed with a charter from Henry VII giving him and his sons authority "to set up our banner on any new found land".

English, Portuguese, French and Spanish Basque fishermen almost immediately sailed for the new fishing grounds. For more than 450 years the Newfoundland banks have been annually fished.

The aboriginal inhabitants of the Island were the Beothuk Indians, a versatile tribe who were both skilled fishermen and competent hunters. Their culture and tribal organization are believed to have been quite distinct from those of the tribes on the mainland. They were the first to use a by-product of Newfoundland's iron ore, red ochre. Their practice of smearing their bodies with it,

observed by the early European visitors, is believed to have given rise to the term "Red Indians".

Sixteenth century writers describe the Beothuks as a friendly race; but they soon learned to distrust the European fishermen who camped on their shores in summers and ultimately established year-round settlements. Driven inland, they survived in considerable numbers until the eighteenth century when many were killed by Micmac hunters who came to Newfoundland from the mainland. The last known Beothuk died in 1829.

Newfoundland, England's "oldest colony" and first possession in North America, was settled more or less spontaneously and mainly in spite of British colonial policy, rather than because of it.

St. John's was apparently quite a thriving fishing community and possibly also a year-round settlement before it was "officially" discovered and taken possession of by Sir Humphrey Gilbert in the name of Queen Elizabeth I in 1583. By that date it is likely that several other fishing stations had been established at other points along the Newfoundland coast.

The first formal attempt at colonization occurred in 1610. In that year Sir Francis Bacon and his associates of the Newfoundland Colonization Company sent John



"Making Fish"

Guy, carrying a charter from James I, to found a colony. Three years later the first white child was born in the new colony.

The settlers had a rough time of it. The fishing interests, represented principally by West-of-England merchants, were hostile to any form of settlement other than the minimum required for their own fishing stations. When James I turned a deaf ear to their protests, they took matters into their own hands and encouraged their fishing crews to destroy the property of the settlers. The latter were also attacked from time to time by pirates. Those early settlers must have had many of the qualities of later Newfoundlanders. In spite of all the forms of persecution to which they were subjected, their little community lasted for 18 years.

Meanwhile six other small settlements were established at various points along the shore of the Avalon Peninsula by such colonizers as Sir William Vaughan, Lord Falkland and Lord Baltimore, and all of them had their troubles.

The last official attempt at colonization occurred in 1637 when a Royal Grant of the entire Island was made to Sir David Kirke and his associates. What survived of the separate little colonies was merged into one for administrative purposes. Then Kirke proceeded to bring the fishermen, both English and foreigners, under colonial control. He charged rent for shore rights, sold tavern licences and attempted to levy taxes on all fish caught. Protests against his administration, from both the fishermen and the settlers, reached England. An investigation was held. Kirke was dismissed, not, curiously enough, because of the way he had treated the fishermen and settlers but because it was decided that he had acted dishonestly toward his partners.

In the reign of Charles I, discouragement and prevention of settlement in Newfoundland became an officially fixed part of English colonial policy.

If settlers were allowed to go to regions which could be exploited without settlement, there would be fewer to go to regions where only settlement would produce such

commodities as spices and tobacco. Settlers in Newfoundland might eventually export fish to England in competition with the existing fishing interests. The annual voyages of the fishing fleet were beginning to prove an excellent training for future seamen for the Royal Navy, and so the fishing interests had the support of the Admiralty. In spite of its great prestige, following the defeat of the Spanish Armada, the fleet did not command the seas, as it was to do, 200 years later, after Trafalgar. An additional, officially authorized and recognized colonial settlement would mean the obligation on the Navy for at least some measure of protection at the end of a long line of communication, and in that Elizabethan Age, with its enthusiastic daring and initiative, its resources were already thinly spread.

Yet in spite of all difficulties, settlement did take place and many of the little communities grew, very slowly, it is true, but also very surely.

In the fishing ports a form of law and order was developed during the summers by the masters of the fishing vessels. By custom, the master of the first ship to enter a port in the spring came to be recognized as "Admiral of the Port", and it became his duty to dispense rough justice.



Blacksmith

Meanwhile, the survivors of the seven little colonies, originally set up by Royal Charter, refused to accept the idea that official England no longer accepted any responsibility for their welfare. They sent a petition to the English Government. Sir Richard Whitbourne was sent out in 1615, held the first legally constituted court in the

Island's history at the little settlement of Trinity and moved from port to port along the coast. But unlike the Fishing Admirals, he had no means of enforcing his decisions.

By 1633, any other system of law and order being lacking, the rule of the Fishing Admirals was legalized by a regulation of the Star Chamber which added certain administrative duties to the functions of the "Admirals". Each "Admiral" became a sort of petty governor of the area surrounding the port where he had been first to enter that spring.

Conditions improved briefly after Cromwell sent a 14-man commission to govern the Island, but by 1670 the "Fishing Admirals" were back in power again with their power confirmed by Charles II. This time, however, the settlers were numerous enough to carry some influence. They managed to obtain a ruling that they were to be left in possession of their property.

With the increase in piracy in the Western Atlantic towards the end of the 17th Century, combined with intensifying struggles among the Spanish, the Portuguese, the Dutch, the French and the English for colonial wealth and sovereignty, England began to send a naval escort each summer with the Newfoundland fishing ships. In 1698 the naval captain of the convoy was given admini-

strative powers over both settlers and fishermen and in 1728 he was given the full status of a Governor, although he remained on the Island only during the fishing season.

Under the administration of the Naval Governors, the authority of the "Fishing Admirals" of course declined, yet it was ended by statute only in 1809 and it was not until 1817 that a Governor was stationed permanently on the Island all the year round.

In the struggle between England and France for control of North America, Newfoundland lay across the entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It also lay beside the sea route to the New England colonies.

The French were represented from the earliest times among the ships making annual fishing voyages to Newfoundland, yet not until the 17th century did they make any attempt at founding a settlement. In 1662 they landed soldiers and settlers at Placentia and built fortifications. English settlers in the district were forced to move.

The resident settlers wanted help from England to drive out the French, but nothing was done about it for 30 years. In 1696, Frontenac, the Governor of New France, sent an expedition of Canadians and Indians under d'Iberville to assist the French Governor at Placentia, apparently in a determined attempt to take the Island.

D'Iberville

The combined French and Canadian forces attacked St. John's simultaneously by land and by sea. The sea attack was repulsed but the land attack, totally unforeseen, was successful. St. John's was captured and burned. The Franco-Canadian forces continued around the coast to Trinity Bay, burning ports and settlements as they went. But the invaders did not have the manpower for successful occupation. St. John's was recaptured and rebuilt. Again, in 1708, it was burned to the ground by the French. Twice again St. John's would come under French attack. The town was captured in 1762 during the Seven Years' War; but the Treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, had already recognized English sovereignty over the whole of Newfoundland except for long disputed shore rights for fishermen. The final French expedition against St. John's was in 1796 and by that time Newfoundlanders were ready for it. Under the leadership of their Governor, they had a massive chain stretched across the harbour mouth to what is now known as Chain Rock—the same rock that played a part in the anti-submarine harbour defences of the Second World War. There were land fortifications garrisoned by 600 well-trained Newfoundlanders. After two days the French fleet withdrew. However, twenty miles down the coast they burned Bay Bulls and took a few prisoners.

Had d'Iberville succeeded in occupying and holding the Island and making it French, Wolfe's fleet might not have been able to sail up the St. Lawrence.

In the century between the Spanish Succession War and the Napoleonic Wars, settlement, justice and administration all advanced, and population rose from about 2,000 in 1700 to about 20,000 in 1804. The fisheries expanded and there was a growing tendency for them to operate from year-round Newfoundland bases rather than by annual voyages from England.

The first civil court was established in 1791 and the following year a Chief Justice was appointed. The first newspaper, the *Royal Gazette,* was established in 1806. The first schools were organized in St. John's about the same time or perhaps a little earlier. There were several churches and missions.

The old regulations prohibiting the enclosure of lands and the building of homes were abolished in 1813. For some years prior to this date, there was a system of individual permissions for home building.

Since the American Revolutionary War, the old colonial policy had been discredited and, by the time of the War of 1812, even the mercantile groups in England that had so fiercely supported it for two centuries were finding

that there was more profit to be gained in trade and services than in outright economic exploitation.

The pressure which finally brought reforms, however, was probably a wave of immigation from Ireland in the first few years of the 19th Century. About 25 per cent of the present population of Newfoundland is of Irish descent, and the forefathers of a considerable proportion of this racial group arrived between 1800 and 1815.

By 1817, the colony had reached the stage of development where the British Government could no longer delay the appointment of a full-time, resident Governor. Finally, in 1824, the old laws against colonization were formally repealed and the Island was officially recognized as open for settlement.

In 1832, representative government was set up, with a bicameral Legislature, the Lower House being elected on a very broad franchise.

Responsible government was granted in 1855 but the British Government still retained control over foreign relations and indirectly also over various economic matters. Moreover, the unhappy legacy of provisions of various treaties affecting fishing rights were to cause difficulties for a long time.

"French Shore"

By the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713, the French recognized British sovereignty in Newfoundland but were granted certain fishing rights along the coast. The Treaty of Paris, 1763, confirmed these rights. The Treaty of Versailles, 1783, changed them so that the "French Shore" extended from Cape St. John on the northeast coast around the northern end of the Island and then southward to Cape Ray at the southwest corner, thus including the entire west coast.

For nearly a century and a half the interpretation of the rights involved in the "French Shore" was in bitter and almost continuous dispute and, in 1857, the British drew up a convention in which they recognized the French claim to exclusive use of the treaty shore.

The Newfoundland Legislature protested vigorously and appealed to the Canadian provinces for support. So vigorous was their opposition that the British Government, in the constitutionally famous Labouchère Despatch, declared the convention null and void and gave assurance that henceforth the consent of the community of Newfoundland would be "the essential preliminary to any modification of their territorial or maritime rights".

Newfoundland proceeded to develop the use and settlement and administration of the "French Shore", though it was not until 1904 that the French Government finally gave up its claims to exclusive rights.

U.S. Fishermen

Another set of fishing rights caused almost as many difficulties. The Treaty of Versailles, 1783, gave Americans the same rights as British subjects to fish in British North American waters, including those of Newfoundland. The Convention of 1818, following the War of 1812, cancelled some of these rights, but continued many along the Newfoundland and Labrador shorelines and included port and shore privileges. For nearly a century the United States on the one side, and first Britain and then Newfoundland on the other, waged an economic cold war over the matter. A settlement reasonably satisfactory to both sides was worked out by The Hague Tribunal in 1910.

Newfoundland nearly succeeded in carrying through to a conclusion a direct settlement of a fisheries dispute with the United States more than 30 years earlier than the first treaty Canada completed in 1923 entirely on her own. In 1890, Sir Robert Bond, who later became Prime Minister of Newfoundland, opened direct and separate negotiations with the United States Secretary of State, James A. Blaine. The two negotiatiors reached a mutually satisfactory arrangement about fishing rights and markets. But Canada believed the proposed convention would place her fishermen at a serious disadvantage and protested to Britain. The British Government withheld its approval of the Bond-Blaine Convention and the whole deal fell through, a fact which caused deep resentment in Newfoundland against Canada.

Two Newfoundlanders, Sir Ambrose Shea and Sir F. B. T. Carter, have been regarded by Canadians since 1867 as "Fathers of Confederation". Shea and Carter were a bi-partisan delegation sent by Newfoundland to the Quebec Conference on the proposed federation of the British North American colonies in 1864. As the discussions progressed, they both became strong proponents of Confederation but had no power to commit the Newfoundland Government. Obviously they were skilled negotiators. They obtained the agreement of the Conference on special financial considerations for their country if Newfoundland should decide to enter the federation.

But Newfoundland was not ready to take action and did not send delegates when the Westminster Conference was held in London in 1866 to draw up the British North America Act. The new Canadian Constitution did, however, make specific provision for the possibility that Newfoundland might decide to come into the federation later.

In 1869 negotiations for federation were opened between Newfoundland and Canada and even more advantageous terms for Newfoundland were agreed upon. By that time, however, a strong and skilfully led anti-confederation movement had arisen in Newfoundland. The Government was decisively defeated in a bitter election and confederation became temporarily a dead issue.

Disasters

Negotiations were reopened again in 1886 and continued unsuccessfully until 1892.

A series of disasters caused great distress in Newfoundland during the next few years. In 1892 a violent storm resulted in great loss of life and property damage, and a great fire at St. John's burned three-quarters of the city and left nearly 11,000 people homeless. While the Island was still recovering from these catastrophes the failure of one of the three banks in St. John's in 1894 brought the Government itself to the brink of financial collapse. Runs occurred on the other two banks and they suspended payment. One of the banks was the fiscal agent of the Government and public credit was jeopardized. Without banking facilities business could scarcely operate. Unemployment was serious. Bread riots occurred.

The government asked Britain for help. Britain agreed to provide assistance but on terms the Newfoundland Government could not bring itself to accept. Newfoundland urgently requested Canada to hold a new conference on federation. The British Government made a grant to Newfoundland for unemployment relief.

The new confederation discussions opened in Ottawa in April, 1895.

The Newfoundland delegation made all the concessions it felt able to make, but there remained a gap of

$200,000 a year between Newfoundland's estimate of its financial requirements and the best the Canadian representatives felt able to offer. Britain was requested to close the gap by assuming part of Newfoundland's public debt. When this appeal was unsuccessful, the confederation talks were broken off.

Meanwhile, the Newfoundland Government was saved from financial collapse largely through the magnificent efforts of Sir Robert Bond who pledged his personal credit as part of the collateral for a temporary loan to the Government.

Between 1870 and the First World War important economic developments occurred in Newfoundland even though the Government frequently had to skate on thin ice financially. The census of 1874 counted a population of 160,000. The extent of dependence of the Island's economy on fish is indicated by the census breakdown. There were 45,800 persons engaged in catching and curing fish, 26,000 able-bodied seamen employed as fishermen, 1,004 farmers, 589 merchants and traders, 120 clergymen, four bishops and 41 doctors.

It was realized that more diversification of the economic basis of the country would cushion the effects of bad fishing seasons or poor markets for fish, but diversification was not easily achieved.

Railways

A railway was advocated as the best means of advancing new types of primary industry and also of improving the communications of the Island generally. Legislation authorizing the construction of the first railway was passed in 1880. Work was started promptly but the contract was never completed. Thereafter until 1896 the country was in an almost constant turmoil of railway controversy, contract letting, contract revision, discussions of monopoly rights for the railway and for coastal steamers, land grants and cash subsidies to the contractor, and the political and economic consequences of all these.

The railway and its cost loomed as a large factor in the confederation negotiations of 1895. Newfoundland wanted Canada to take over the railway and deduct the amount already spent on it from the Island's total debt. Canada already had about as many railway problems as she felt able to handle.

The Newfoundland Railway, from St. John's to Port aux Basques, was completed in 1896. While it never carried as much traffic as had been anticipated, it did a fairly good job of opening up new regions for settlement and of helping along the development of the mining and pulp and paper industries.

Just before and after the turn of the century there were a number of developments which linked Newfound-

land more closely with Canada. When the railway was completed a regular steamship service was established between Sydney, N.S., and Port aux Basques. Branches of the Canadian banks were opened in St. John's and other towns after the Newfoundland bank failure of 1894. The Canadian dollar became the accepted currency. After 1895 Newfoundland's new iron mine at Bell Island sent much of its ore to the new Canadian steel industry at Sydney, N.S. A considerable number of Newfoundlanders emigrated to Canada seeking new economic opportunities. Newfoundland students attended Canadian universities, especially Dalhousie.

Fish was still the mainstay of the Newfoundland economy but a trend toward diversification was discernible. In 1894 fish and fish products constituted 90 per cent of the Island's exports. By 1914 the value of fish and fish products exported had doubled but then constituted only 74 per cent of Newfoundland's exports. Iron ore and pulp and paper were the two most important new factors in the export trade. Newfoundland's first huge paper mill began operations at Grand Falls in 1909.

Economic conditions had improved to such an extent that the Government was in a strong enough fiscal position in 1908 to set up a badly needed program of health and social services. Grants to education were increased. Direct taxation of the fishermen was reduced.


Cape Chidley
TORNGAT MTNS.
LABRADOR
NEWFOUNDLAND
50 0 50 100 150 200
Miles


Goose Bay
Hamilton River
MEALY MO
Blanc Sablon
Strait of Belle Isle
WESTERN UPLANDS
Botwood
Gander
Exploits R.
Grand Falls
Corner Brook
Buchans
CENTRAL PLATEAU
Bonavista
Trinity
Trinity Bay
Conception Bay
Wabana
Cupids
BELL I.
Torbay
St. JOHN'S
AVALON PENINSULA
Port aux Basques
Cabot Strait
Placentia Bay



The Island has a memorable record of service in the First World War. Newfoundlanders served with the Royal Navy in the Tenth Cruiser Squadron blockading Germany, in the attack on the Zeebrugge Mole, in mine sweeping in the North Sea, in the Battle of Jutland, in anti-submarine operations. Others serving in the Newfoundland-Labrador Patrol guarded the shores of their homeland. Nearly 7,000 volunteered for service with the Newfoundland Regiment and the Forestry Corps. The Newfoundland Regiment distinguished itself in action at Gallipoli and in France and Flanders.

For most Canadians, July 1 has a single significance. It is the national holiday. But for Newfoundlanders, it had another significance long before Newfoundland entered the Canadian Confederation. It is the anniversary of the day in 1916 during the battle of the Somme when 91 per cent of the officers and men of the Newfoundland Regiment were killed or wounded at Beaumont-Hamel in one of the most heroic stands of the war. The Newfoundland Commemoration Day was fixed as July 1, if a Sunday, or the nearest Sunday to that date.

All prices rose during the First World War and fish prices went exceptionally high. The result for Newfoundland was an economic boom beyond anything previously



Caribou Memorial

experienced in the Island's history, followed by a sharp collapse in which there were numerous business failures and such serious unemployment that relief was needed in many communities.

Gradually times became better once more. Fish prices rose again. Newfoundland got its second pulp and paper mill, the one at Corner Brook, in 1925. New European markets were developed for Bell Island's iron ore. The copper-lead-zinc mine at Buchans came into production in 1928. Between 1926 and 1930 Newfoundland's economy climbed up to a boom before its worst let-down in the world depression of the early 1930s.

By the end of 1932 the Government of Newfoundland was bankrupt. It was saved from immediate default by advances from Canada and the United Kingdom but new interest payments had to be met in the summer of 1933. The United Kingdom promised a further loan if the Newfoundland Government would agree to a Royal Commission investigation of its financial situation. The Royal Commission recommended suspension of responsible government and a plan of retrenchment and rehabilitation to be worked out under a commission government. Having no alternative, the Newfoundland Legislature accepted the recommendations. From 1934 until March 31, 1949, when Newfoundland became the tenth Canadian province, the country was ruled by a Governor and six Commissioners, three of them Newfoundlanders and the other three originally from the United Kingdom.

Swallowing government by decree was a bitter pill for many thousands of Newfoundlanders whose forefathers had struggled through the persecutions of the fishing merchants and the harsh rule of the fishing admirals to recognized colonial status and then on to representative government and then responsible government and dominion status. It had to be admitted that the Commission of Government was doing a good if painful and sometimes tactless job of straightening out the Island's financial affairs. And later, when Newfoundland's reven-



Cabot Tower

ues soared to new heights during the localized boom conditions of the Second World War, there was approval of many reforms initiated or authorized by the Commission. But with the degree of comparative prosperity that then existed there was a feeling that any government should be able to make a good showing.

Approximately 12,000 Newfoundlanders served overseas in the Second World War. There was an ironic

twist to that. In March, 1943, the most vital and the most desperately hard-pressed combat region of the conflict with Germany was the convoy route almost within sight of the shore of the Avalon Peninsula. Newfoundland was not merely in the front line; for a critical six weeks, it *was* the front line of the sea war.

Some of the Newfoundlanders in the services were in the Royal Navy. Others provided the personnel of two regiments of the Royal Artillery. But many others served with the Royal Canadian Navy, the Canadian Army and the Royal Canadian Air Force.

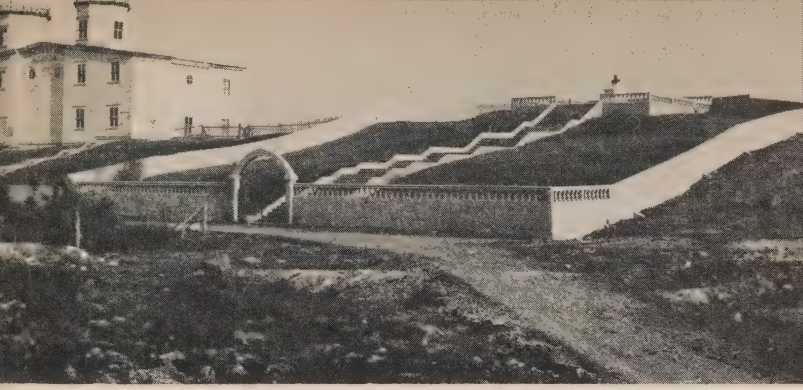
Shortly after the end of the Second World War the United Kingdom Government announced that a National Convention would be elected by the people of Newfoundland to assist in arriving at a decision as to the country's future form of government. The National Convention recommended to the United Kingdom Government that only two alternatives be placed on the ballot in a national referendum, namely, the restoration of responsible government or the continuation of commission government. There was a motion in the National Convention to include confederation with Canada among the choices, but this was defeated. However, the United Kingdom Government, in order to allow expression to the views of the minority, decided that confederation should be among the possible choices on the ballot.

In the first vote, none of the three proposed forms of government received an absolute majority. Restoration of responsible government was preferred by 44·6 per cent of the voters; confederation by 41·1 per cent and the continuation of the Commission of Government by 14·3 per cent. In accordance with arrangements already made in case there was no absolute majority, a second vote was held with the ballot limited to the two courses that received most support on the first vote. The result was 78,323 for confederation and 71,334 votes for responsible government.

Canadians welcomed the decision of Newfoundland, but much more than the stroke of a pen was needed to fit the Island into Confederation as the tenth province. Newfoundland's economy and its administrative practices were both sharply different from those of any of the nine provinces.

With many problems in mind, negotiations for union opened in Ottawa in October, 1948, between a delegation from Newfoundland and a committee of the Canadian Cabinet.

The terms of union finally worked out were financially better for Newfoundland than financial terms had been for any other province at the time it joined Confederation or was created. There was recognition, appar-



Congress Hall

ently concurred in throughout Canada, that Newfoundland's special problems required special consideration.

The terms were signed on December 11, 1948. They were written into the Canadian Constitution in the form of the British North America Act, 1949; and the new Province became a full-fledged member of the Canadian federal partnership at midnight on March 31, 1949.

Under the terms of union, the Newfoundland Railway was taken over by the Federal Government and became part of the Canadian National Railways system. The main line runs from St. John's to Port aux Basques. There are four branch lines, the whole having a little more than 700 miles of track.

Primary transportation to and from the mainland is by a regular steamship service between Port aux Basques



Gander Airport

and North Sydney, N.S. During the shipping season on the St. Lawrence there are various steamship sailings, mostly small freighters, from Montreal.

At Gander, Newfoundland has one of the world's great centres of air transportation. Goose Bay in Labrador is an alternate airport for trans-Atlantic flights if weather conditions are not suitable at Gander.

Regular air transportation with the mainland of Canada is provided by Trans-Canada Airlines which has passenger facilities at both Gander and Torbay.

But neither airlines nor railway are able to serve many of Newfoundland's communities. Coastal trans-

portation by ship, used by Newfoundlanders for centuries, is still the most efficient transportation to hundreds of small communities.

In the winter, with harbours frozen over and the coastal steamers unable to operate along much of the coast, mail is carried by airplane. In some cases it is delivered by free drop or by parachute. Helicopters have been used experimentally.

Roads are a relatively less important transportation factor in Newfoundland than railway and sea routes. The perimeter type of settlement emphasizes coastal shipping rather than internal roads, with the result that the road network is less developed than in any other province.



Bell Island

Communications

Before 1949 Newfoundland had a telegraph system which was operated by and completely interlinked with the postal system. Since Confederation the telegraph system has been taken over by Canadian National Telegraphs.

The CBC took over the system and stations of the former Newfoundland Broadcasting Corporation. A regular service of news and entertainment is provided similar to that in other parts of Canada and indeed using the same network programs; but the specialized problems of local communications are also kept in mind. In addition to the CBC stations there is a number of small privately owned broadcasting stations, one or two of which are operated by churches.

Newfoundland's fish and forests have been of tremendous importance and will be so for a long time to come. The minerals, the iron ore of Bell Island, the copper-lead-zinc deposits at Buchans, some fluorspar on the Burin Peninsula, have been a significant factor in Newfoundland's economy, but compared with almost any aspect of the mining industry in various other Canadian provinces, they are not sensational.

The Provincial Government, almost immediately after union with Canada, initiated a vigorous program of survey, study and support for new developments on the Island. To date the results have been most noticeable in

the modernization of existing primary industries, particularly the fishing industry; but at any moment there might be some new discovery of importance turning up a new natural resource, possibly mineral. Alternatively, technical improvements in processes may make some of the known resources more valuable.

In agriculture, it is difficult to foresee many major developments. Soil surveys may turn up a few areas with better land than any now being used for farming, but the chances of this are not particularly bright. More likely the soil studies will have their greatest value in determining how to make present farms more productive.

How then is the Island of Newfoundland to attain greater economic balance? One answer is in the continued encouragement of more advanced processing of the island's existing products, thus greatly increasing their export value.

Another approach is through the encouragement of new manufacturing industries on the Island—not necessarily very large ones selling in the export market but smaller ones making products needed by Newfoundlanders themselves and providing work at good wages for a proportion of the population. Newfoundland is well advanced in developed waterpower and has sufficient undeveloped power sites to make fairly extensive small manufacturing feasible.



Carving Ivory

But Labrador is part of the Province of Newfoundland; and Labrador is another story. Its potential mineral wealth is at present incalculable, its potential waterpower fantastic. Part of the mineral wealth that can be calculated, the great iron ore deposit at Knob Lake on the Quebec-Labrador boundary, is sufficient to suggest that in the first year of production the value of ore exported will be enough to have an appreciable effect on Canada's import-export balance with the United States.

Labrador is still largely unexplored by prospectors but its general geological characteristics are such that it may eventually become one of the world's greatest mining

regions. About its almost unbelievable quantities of waterpower, however, there is no doubt.

Meanwhile, Newfoundland has a secondary industry, the tourist trade, which is capable of great expansion. Both the Island of Newfoundland and the coast of Labrador have plenty of scenic attractions, and the fish and game resources are attractive to hunters and anglers.

The denominational character of Newfoundland's educational system was a natural outgrowth of the early colonial policy which gave neither facilities nor comfort to settlers. Since settlement occurred in spite of the policy, the churches assumed the responsibility for the education of the people.

A clergyman in 1726 founded the first school on the Island at Bonavista. During the subsequent century or more, as schools were set up elsewhere, the entire responsibility and expense of education were carried by the churches and by private organizations and individuals. There was no formal recognition of education by any governmental authority until Newfoundland attained representative government.

The first Education Act was passed in 1836. It attempted to set up education on a non-denominational basis but failed because denominational interest in education was already so thoroughly established. The Act was

then amended to recognize Newfoundland's principal religious bodies.

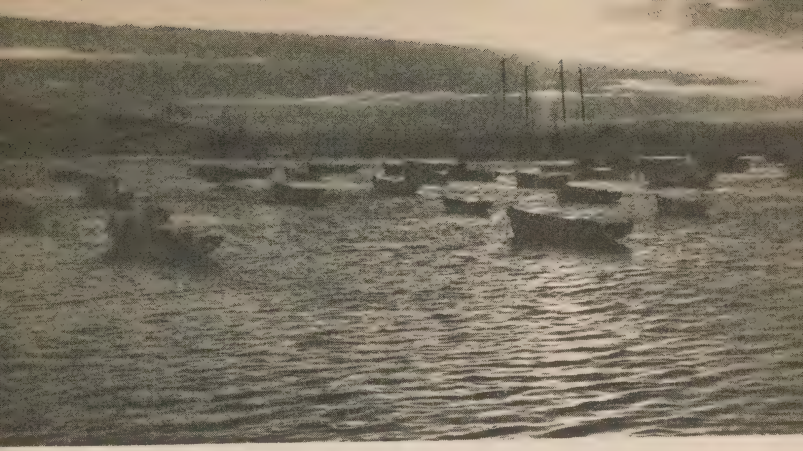
Under the Commission of Government, education was brought nominally under full state control, but in practice there was little change from the system to which Newfoundlanders had long been accustomed.

Now that Newfoundland is a province of Canada, education is administered by a department of the Provincial Government as in other provinces, but a strong denominational element is retained.

Under the Minister of Education is the Secretary of Education, who is the equivalent of a deputy minister in other provinces. The Secretary is assisted by four Executive Officers, each of whom represents one of the four major religious denominations. Each Executive Officer is a superintendent of elementary and secondary education for the schools of his denomination.

The Minister, the Secretary and the four Executive Officers constitute the Council of Education which formulates educational policy for the Province as a whole.

Newfoundland is divided into educational districts for each of the denominations. In other words, there is a system of schools throughout the Province for Roman Catholics, another system for children of Church of



Bonavista Harbour

England families, another system for children of United Church families and still another system for Salvation Army families.

The local authority in matters of education is the district Board of Education of which the local clergyman is always a member. It hires and may dismiss teachers and has charge of the school property. Teachers' salaries are paid by the local board out of government grants. Additional remuneration, based on qualifications, is paid to the teachers directly by the department.

The secular subjects of the curriculum of the Newfoundland schools are the same throughout the entire educational system. Indeed they are the same subjects

taught throughout the other eastern provinces of Canada. Nearly 20 years ago Newfoundland joined the Maritime Provinces of Canada in setting up a joint examining board. This board sets the same high school examination papers for all these provinces.

Religious instruction given in Newfoundland schools is, of course, determined by the denomination in charge. This part of the curriculum is not compulsory.

A School Attendance Act in 1942 placed education for the first time on a compulsory basis between the ages of seven and fourteen. This Act eliminated any fees or other charges for the individual child in the ordinary elementary and secondary schools.



Old and New Churches

The Island has one university, the Memorial University of Newfoundland. Established in 1925 as Memorial University College, it was raised to full university status in 1949 and is now giving complete undergraduate education and conferring degrees in certain courses.

Since Confederation a number of important new educational trends have been emerging.

One trend is toward more and better technical and vocational education. Another, and a very pronounced one, is the development of adult education. Navigation has long been an important subject of adult education in Newfoundland. After the Second World War the Department of Education set up well-attended classes in handicrafts. More recently there have been various technical courses especially in connection with new methods in the fishing industry.

The provincial government of Newfoundland consists of a lieutenant-governor, an executive council or cabinet and an elected house of assembly or legislature. It is thus essentially the same as the provincial governments of the other provinces which have one-chamber legislatures.

In days when Newfoundland was a self-governing dominion it had a bicameral parliament consisting of an elected house of assembly and an appointed legislative

council. Provision has been made for the establishment of a bicameral provincial legislature in Newfoundland at any future date if the Province desires it.

Although the legal and constitutional aspects of incorporating a once self-governing dominion into the Canadian federation appeared on paper to be intricate and formidable, in practice there were few difficulties. The separation of sovereignties and jurisdictions as between the federal and provincial authorities was already laid down for all the provinces by the British North America Act.

One interesting development was the granting of the right to vote to women at the same age as men, 21 years. In 1925, women in Newfoundland got the right to vote but only on attaining the age of 25.

An interim provincial government was formed the day union with Canada became effective and less than two months later the first provincial election was held to elect the members of the 28-seat legislature. The following month, Newfoundlanders voted in their first federal election, the General Election of June, 1949.

Newfoundland's representation in the Canadian House of Commons was seven members, of whom one, Hon. F. Gordon Bradley, had already become a Cabinet

member, 1 April, 1949, as Secretary of State for Canada. In the Senate, Newfoundland is entitled to six senators.

Local government in Newfoundland is, in most places, a recent development. Until 1942 the only incorporated municipality in Newfoundland was St. John's. At the time of union the number of incorporated municipalities had risen to 21. There are no organized rural units of local government such as the townships and counties of Ontario and Quebec and other provinces.

As we have seen, the population of Newfoundland grew very slowly if persistently in the early days. By the end of the 18th century, it totalled about 20,000. During the 19th century, it rose to 220,000, mainly through natural increase, but partly through waves of Irish immigration early in that century. After the Irish, very few immigrants arrived on the Island.

At the time of the 1945 census the population was 321,819 of whom 98·5 per cent were native born. About 60 per cent were of English and Channel Island ancestry and 25 per cent Irish. About six per cent had either French or Scottish ancestry. The remaining nine per cent were of various origins, including Indians and Eskimos.

The 1951 Canadian Census showed a total Newfoundland population of 361,416. The total consisted of 206,621 rural residents and 154,795 urban.

Population

The distribution of Newfoundland's fishermen in small hamlets along the coast is reflected in the fact that only about 16,000 of the 206,621 who are listed as rural dwellers live on farms. Included in the 190,000 rural but non-farming population are, of course, not only most of the fishermen but many engaged in woods operations for the pulp and paper companies.

Although it is nearly the oldest centre of Western civilization in North America, Newfoundland has, as population experts look at such matters, one of the youngest populations in the Canadian Confederation. For Canada as a whole, about 22 per cent of the population is under 10 years of age. In Newfoundland, according to the 1951 Census, there were 105,264 children under 10, or 29 per cent of the total population.

Another suggestion of vigorous youthfulness is to be found in the proportion of males to females in the population. Generally speaking, as a region is approaching a surging period of growth or new development the proportion of males to females is high. In Newfoundland there are 105 males to 100 females.

The characteristics of Newfoundlanders are too well known to require comment. Their history moulded them. In Newfoundland you need neither wealth, social position nor even extensive education to have a mind of your own,

a sense of humour that works best when the going is toughest, a deep affection for homeland and family and an innate sense of the dignity of the human spirit.

The provincial capital, St. John's, with a population of 67,749, is much the largest community in Newfoundland. Not only does the Province's political, economic and intellectual life centre there but it is one of the world's historic seaports. Few ports have had as colourful and varied a story.

And the port of St. John's will no doubt always be colourful. The great ocean liners will dock at Halifax and Montreal and New York, but smaller ships will set out from St. John's on voyages to the West Indies, the Caribbean, the Mediterranean or northward into the Arctic Ice. And seal skins, molasses, rum and spices will be unloaded at the St. John's wharves, along with electric refrigerators, motor cars, diamond drill bits and patent medicines, for a long time to come.

But the profound importance of the port of St. John's is strategic—a fact that might have lost us the victory in the Second World War had it gone unrecognized by the Canadian Government in 1939, when it was being underestimated by other governments.

St. John's is the hub of a road network throughout the Avalon Peninsula. It is the principal railway, tele-

Business Centre

phone, telegraph, cable and radio centre of the Island. It is the site of Government House, the legislative building, two cathedrals and the university. It is the head office location for much of Newfoundland's business life.

The city's industries include fish processing, shipbuilding and repairing (there is a dry dock able to take ships 570 feet long), rope and cordage manufacturing, wood working, clothing manufacture, beverage bottling and many other lines, principally for local Newfoundland markets. It is the wholesale centre for the entire Island.

The airport at Torbay, about five miles north of the city, is an eastern terminus for the transcontinental line of Trans-Canada Airlines.

Next to St. John's, the most widely known Newfoundland town is Corner Brook, the site of one of the world's largest pulp and paper mills. The Census subdivision of Corner Brook had a population of about 18,000 in 1951, of whom some 2,000 were employed in the paper mill. The same mill, incidentally, employs an additional 5,000 men in the 11,000 square miles of forest where the pulpwood is cut.

Situated at the head of Humber Arm, a deep west coast bay, Corner Brook has deep water transportation direct from the paper mill during most of the year. When Humber Arm is frozen over, newsprint is shipped by railway to Port aux Basques.

Although the town's economic activities centre predominantly in pulp and paper, Corner Brook is a trade and distributing centre for the surrounding country. About 30,000 people live in the region, making it the most thickly settled part of Newfoundland with the exception of the Avalon Peninsula.

Newfoundland's other pulp and paper town is Grand Falls, with a population of about 5,000. It is on the Exploits River a few miles above deep water shipping. Four nearby smaller towns, Windsor, Bishop's Falls, Millertown and Botwood, ranging in population from 2,500 to 3,700, are all concerned in one way or another with newsprint manufacture.

Botwood, it will be remembered, was an important name in the early days of trans-Atlantic air navigation. Its usefulness was primarily as a harbour for flying boats.

Gander, a small airfield before the Second World War, grew into one of the world's most famous airports during the War. In the post-war period it has developed still further for civilian air transport. The community which adjoins the airport has a permanent population of about 2,000.

The oldest primarily industrial town in Newfoundland is Wabana on Bell Island in Conception Bay. Not only the town but the entire island is dominated by iron

mining operations. Bell Island has a population of a little over 10,000, about 6,500 of whom live in Wabana.

But descriptions of principal centres of population give little of the true atmosphere of the community life of a large part of the population of Newfoundland. That is to be found in scores upon scores of outport villages, most of them so small that they are unorganized municipally. There the fishermen and their families live virtually unique and strongly independent urban-rural-marine lives. There are the hamlets, so many of them with tenderly poignant and beautiful place names. There the old ballads are still being handed down and sung from generation to generation.

Photos courtesy of
National Film Board
of Canada

HOW TO USE THIS PAMPHLET

NEWFOUNDLAND

This is Article No. 6 in the CITIZENSHIP SERIES of CURRENT AFFAIRS pamphlets.

Read this pamphlet carefully, make notes and follow a definite plan in presenting your material in the Discussion Hour.

The headings in the pamphlet are arranged so that you can present your material in an orderly manner.

Place-names can be found on the accompanying map which should be referred to frequently so as to familiarize the group with the geography of the Province.

The following questions are suggested for discussion at the end of the presentation of your material:

1. In what respects is the geography of Newfoundland (*a*) advantageous (*b*) disadvantageous for development of the Island's economy?
2. How was Newfoundland colonized?
3. What were Newfoundland's relations with Canada, 1867-1949?
4. What were the terms of union between Canada and Newfoundland, 1949?
5. What resources has Newfoundland?
6. How does the Newfoundland educational system differ from that of other Canadian provinces?

Do not forget to make a summary of the discussion in the last five minutes of the hour.

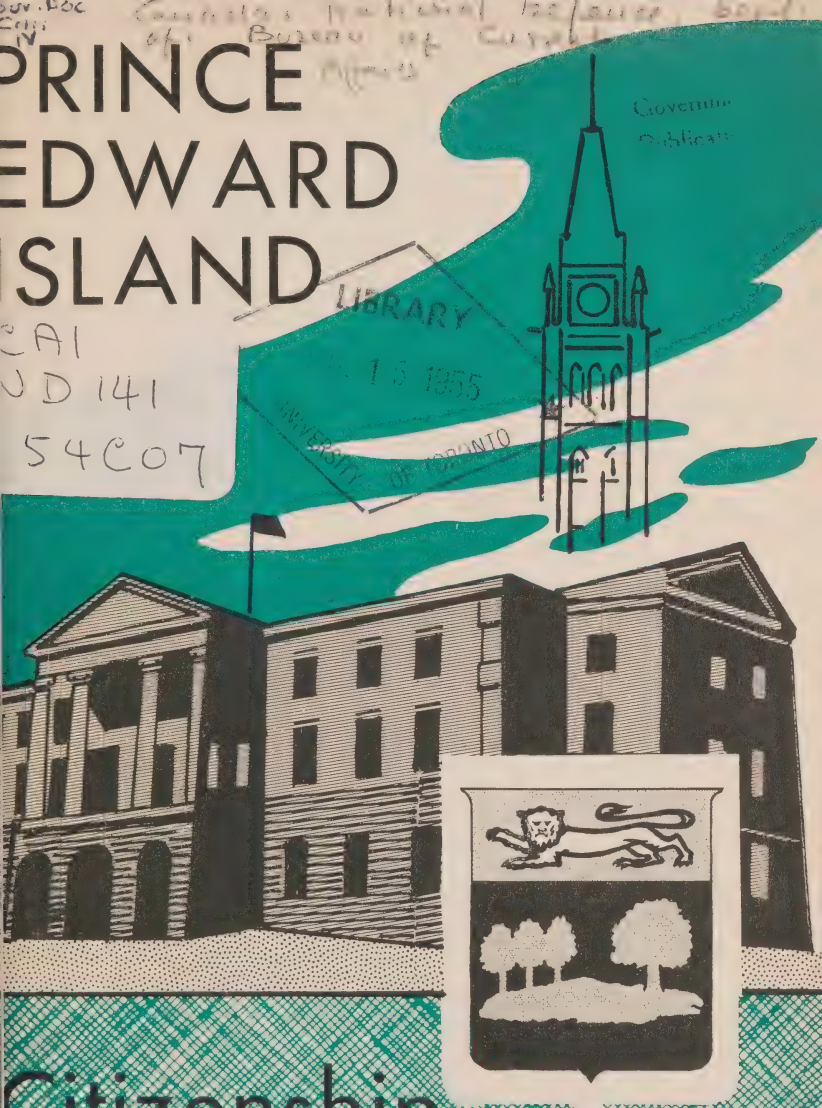
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Citizenship

no. 7

FOR THE CANADIAN FORCES

Government
Publications

The seventh of a series of pamphlets on Canadian Citizenship, prepared especially for the Armed Forces by the Bureau of Current Affairs.

The Province of Prince Edward Island

No. 7

BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, CANADA

Introduction

In a foreword to the first of the regular series of *Current Affairs* pamphlets issued in October, 1951, the Minister of National Defence stated that service personnel "should know as much as possible about Canada . . .".

Accordingly, the Bureau of Current Affairs has initiated a series of citizenship pamphlets. In this series five have been published to date dealing with the following topics:—

The Canadian Constitution
How Parliament Works
Local Government
The Serviceman and His Vote
The Public Service of Canada.

We are now issuing citizenship pamphlets which tell about the ten provinces of Canada and Yukon and the Northwest Territories. This material will supplement the first five pamphlets.

We sincerely hope that service personnel will obtain a broader understanding and deeper appreciation of their country from a study and discussion of this material.

HARRY R. LOW
Director, Bureau of Current Affairs

The Province of Prince Edward Island

Prince Edward Island is a garden set in a silvery sea. It is a land of rich farms, low rolling hills, spruce hedgerows, tidal inlets, long sand beaches, with the murmuring sea all about, on every hand. *Abegweit, The House Cradled on the Waves,* so the Micmac Indians, the earliest known inhabitants, called it. And a quiet home by the sea it remains today.

But let us turn back a little and note what that hardy adventurer, Jacques Cartier, wrote of it as his two small vessels from Saint Malo nosed their way up the north shore of the Island towards the St. Lawrence. The date is July 1, 1534. Here are his words in their quaint sixteenth-century French:

> *Celui jour rangeames ladite terre neuff ou dix lieues pour cuydez trouvez hable; ce que ne peumes; car, comme j'ay cy davant dit, c'est terre brasse et sonme. Nous y dessandimes celui jour en quatre lieulx, pour voir les arbres queuls sont marveilleusement beaulx, et de grade odeur et trouvames que*



Cavendish Beach

d'etoient cèdres, iffs, pins, ormes blans, frainnes, sauldres et autres, plusieurs incongneuz, tous arbres sans fruitz. Les terres où il n'y a bouays, sont fort belles, et toutes plaines de poys, grouaiseliers blans et rouges, frasses, franboysses et blé sauviage, comme seille, quel il semble y abvoir este semé et labouré. C'est terre de la meilleure temperance qu'il soit possible de voir et de grande chaleur; et y a plusieurs teurtres et ramyers et aultres ouaiseaulx. Il n' fault que de hables.

Which, being translated into English, reads:

That day we coasted this shore some nine or ten leagues to try to find a harbour but could not do so for, as I have already mentioned, the shore is low and the water shallow. We landed that day in four places to see the trees which are wonderfully

> beautiful and very fragrant. We discovered that there were cedars, yew-trees, pines, white elms, ash trees, willows and others, many of them unknown to us and all trees without fruit. The soil where there are no trees is very rich and is covered with peas, white and red gooseberry bushes, strawberries, raspberries, and wild oats like rye, which one would say had been sown there and tilled. It is the best-tempered region one can possibly see and the heat is considerable. There are many turtle-doves, wood pigeons and other birds. Nothing is wanting but harbours.

So, to Jacques Cartier, over four centuries ago, Prince Edward Island was wonderfully beautiful, the trees were very fragrant and nothing was wanting to the north shore (which was the only shore he knew) but harbours. Nor are there good harbours on the north shore today. As in the days of Cartier, the tide still rolls over miles and miles of virgin sand. But instead of a few Indians wondering from the shore what those strange new sea-birds could be, many thousands of delighted visitors now find rest and comfort and peace in the House Cradled on the Waves.

Champlain called the Island *Île St-Jean* in honour of St. John the Baptist and that name it retained till 1798,



when its name became Prince Edward Island in honour of Prince Edward, Duke of Kent, who later became the father of Queen Victoria.

The first settlers came from France. They were brought out by a company under the leadership of Count St. Pierre. But the settlement did not succeed. When the charter was revoked in 1830, there were only 452 settlers and fishermen on the Island. More enterprising and perhaps a little more romantic was the settlement scheme of Jean-Pierre de Roma. With three other Frenchmen, de Roma sought to create a New World at a place he called Three Rivers, now Brudenell Point, on the Island's eastern shore. With tremendous energy, de Roma built wharves, bridges, storehouses and dwelling houses. But de Roma's partners began to doubt. They questioned de Roma's ability to carry his scheme through. In the end, de Roma bought them out. He was now sole proprietor of the New Company. Still the troubles grew. First, some of the settlers left. Then a plague of field mice ate not only the crops but the grass. The colony had scarcely recovered from the loss when de Roma's largest vessel, with all its cargo, was lost at sea. Four years later, a band of New Englanders looted and burned the entire settlement. De Roma and his family escaped

Cartier Monument

and eventually reached Quebec. Their New World remained nothing but a dream.

The Island was ceded to Britain by the Treaty of Paris in 1763. It was at first united with Nova Scotia but in 1769 became a separate colony. The Island had scarcely passed under British rule when the Earl of Egmont, then First Lord of the Admiralty, attempted to establish feudal tenures throughout the Island. Lord Egmont's scheme, as seen in these days, reads like comic opera. In December of 1763, the Earl of Egmont presented a memorial to King George III praying for a grant of the whole Island, to hold the same in fee of the Crown for ever. Under the scheme, the Earl was to be Lord Paramount of the whole Island having under him, as tenants, forty capital Lords of forty Hundreds (a Hundred is an old division of a county in England, originally supposed to contain a hundred families) four hundred Lords of Manors and eight hundred freeholders. The Lord Paramount was to be allotted ten Hundreds of his own demesne and there was to be erected thereon "a strong castle, mounted with ten pieces of cannon, each carrying a ball of four pounds, with a circuit round the castle of three miles every way".

The Lord of each Hundred, in his turn, was to erect a castle or block-house as the capital seat of his property "and as a place of retreat and rendezvous for the settlers".

A cannon fired at one of the castles would be heard at the next and thus the firing would proceed in regular order from castle to castle and be the means of putting every inhabitant of the whole Island under arms and in motion in the space of a quarter of an hour.

And all this display of armed force was to dominate an island of 2,100 square miles inhabited at the time by thirty Acadian families and a handful of Indians.

Fortunately for the Island, Lord Egmont's scheme was quietly shelved in London. King George III referred it to the Board of Trade and Plantations. The Board reported unequivocally against it as "totally and fundamentally adverse in its principles to that system of settlement of tenure which had of late years been adopted in the colonies".

But while Lord Egmont's scheme was rejected, the Board of Trade and Plantations divided the entire Island among English proprietors who had claims for military or other public service. Allotment was by ballot. The ballot was held in London, July 23, 1767, under the Superintendent of the Board of Trade. The whole territory of the Island, with the exception of a Crown reserve of certain lots and three small reservations as sites for county towns, was thus granted in township lots to individual proprietors, most of them absentees. This unfor-

tunate system caused difficulties for generations. It worked especial hardship on the tenant who had to satisfy the demands of an absentee landlord. Indeed, it was not changed till Prince Edward Island entered the Canadian Confederation, in 1873. Landlords were then required to sell their lands to the Provincial Government. The Provincial Government, in turn, sold the lands to the tenants.

Yet, despite attempts at feudalism, despite absentee landlordism, settlers came to the Island from England, Scotland and Ireland. Of the thirty thousand or so United Empire Loyalists who sought new homes for themselves in Nova Scotia, possibly three hundred moved across the Straits to Prince Edward Island. Of the early migrations, Scottish settlers were the most numerous. Two groups are worthy of special note. The first, led by Macdonald of Glenaladale, arrived in 1772. They came, not merely to carve new homes for themselves in a new land, but to escape an odd type of religious conversion. It was known locally as "The Religion of the Yellow Staff" and operated in this wise: The Macdonald who was proprietor of the lands they occupied in Scotland was a strong Protestant. He would stand at a fork in the road leading to the Presbyterian church he himself attended and, with a yellow walking stick, would try to drive his tenants to the service. But there was another Macdonald at Glenaladale, a cousin of the proprietor, less prejudiced in his

views. Learning of the tenants' troubles he mortgaged his own estates, hired a vessel, and moved the new colonists to the Island.

The second Scottish settlement came from the Isle of Skye and was led by Lord Selkirk. The settlers were approximately eight hundred strong and travelled in three ships which arrived at the Island, the first, August 7, the second, August 9 and the third, August 27, 1803. The settlers carved homes for themselves in what is now known as the Belfast district. They found conditions much harder than they expected, but within a year had made themselves self-supporting. Malcolm Macqueen describes how they lived in almost Arcadian simplicity. Their fare at meal time consisted of pickled herring and dried salt cod. Oatmeal porridge was the staple breakfast dish. Years passed before wheat flour was used daily. In the meantime, barley and buckwheat followed the oatmeal diet. Many meals were taken without knife or fork. Those that were used were generally of horn. The teapot was always on the hearth. The houses were cold. The open chimney, though healthy, allowed most of the heat to escape. Newspapers were unknown. The Gaelic Bible was in every home but other books were rare. All were warmly clothed. The men wore natural grey homespun, the women drugget (a coarse woollen fabric). Their shoes were made in the neighbouring homes from cow-

hide tanned in the settlement. Well rubbed with warm sheep's tallow, they were impervious to water.

And the settlers brought to the Island all their traditional Highland courtesy. Walter Johnstone, shoemaker of Dumfries, who travelled round The Island, in 1820, in the interest of Sabbath schools, relates this curious experience. "At this time", Johnstone writes, "night came on and the snow was so deep that I was obliged to turn from the road and ask for quarters at the house of a Highlander with whom I had no acquaintance. The favour was granted without the least appearance of reluctance or difficulty. The family consisted of the man and his wife with one son or daughter. I got a bed in the kitchen with blankets, feather bed and bolster. But while I was so well accommodated I knew nothing how the rest of the family were supplied with these necessaries. A board partition divided the house and the family slept in the other apartment. But on the Monday morning when I stepped beyond the partition in search of my bundle how greatly was I surprised to see the two bedsteads with nothing but dry hay in both of them. I came to know the fact that the people had lain both nights with their clothes on, and that I had got all the bedding in the house for my accommodation. I am sorry that I cannot insert the name of the Highlander. He was so ignorant of English that I could not exchange one word

with him, but I gave him several religious tracts in return for their kindness."

At the time Lord Selkirk organized his migration scheme, the Highlands of Scotland were being changed into grazing lands and deer forests. Lord Selkirk took a deep interest in the evicted peasants and endeavoured to organize emigration to the British Colonies. The settlement he organized in Prince Edward Island was the first of three. He organized a smaller one at Baldoon in upper Canada (Ontario). The third settlement he organized was along the Red River Valley in Manitoba.

In his diary, a manuscript copy of which is in the Public Archives at Ottawa, Lord Selkirk gives human glimpses of life in Prince Edward Island in those early days. Copies of land conveyances show that the farms were from 50 to 200 acres, in one case 492 acres. Prices for land ran from half-a-dollar an acre for back land, one dollar for front land and two dollars for old cleared land. The labourer usually got half-a-dollar a day with provisions, a dollar without. The only public object to which any attention was paid was roads, for which a revenue of from two to three hundred pounds was raised. Inhabitants of the Island were bound to give statute labour for road construction but the roads were very indifferent, mere bridle-paths. Nowhere had the stumps been rooted out. They might in some parts be passable for a "slay"

in winter but scarcely anywhere for a cart in summer, "full of deep, wet places and as they go on in direct lines, marked out by the compass, it is an even chance whether they go along swamp land . . . the roads are almost entirely made by statute labour".

Lord Selkirk relates how on Saturday, August 13, 1803, he visited the Belfast settlement. The settlers, he observes, consisted of Skye and Ross-shire people. He writes: "Visited the old French village called Belfast. Went on board the *Polly* (one of the emigrant ships) from which everybody was landed. Some squabbling had arisen about the cooking, no cook being provided by the ship. It was difficult to keep order among so great a number—280 passengers and nearly 400 souls . . . I found the people scattered about along a mile of shore, a few in barns, etc. belonging to three unauthorized settlers, the rest in hovels or wigwams built oblong like the roof of one of our European cottages and thatched in general with spruce boughs, some of them very close and fit to turn a good rain but the fine weather had not even put them to the test . . . the 'musquittoe' curtains were mismanaged and enclosed as many within as without so that the night was not the most comfortable. . . . The encampment had a very picturesque appearance under night, every tent having a great fire which illuminated the woods, and each party sitting or moving around with

very gypsy-like apparatus of pots and pans gave the light additional variety of play."

And how, in the long run, fared Lord Selkirk himself? One learns of his public-spirited efforts to find new homes in the colonies for evicted crofters of the Scottish Highlands. One rejoices to know that, undaunted by tremendous difficulties, his settlers were able to establish new homes and a new life for themselves. But Selkirk himself fared ill. His Red River settlement ran into the bitter hostility of the old North-West Fur Company. Selkirk was involved in various legal proceedings in which he was the loser. He retired to Pau in the south-west of France and, in 1820, died there a broken man.

The coming of settlers gave new impetus to movements for more democratic rule. Responsible government was gained in 1851. Responsible government meant that the Cabinet would be responsible to a Legislature elected by the people. Further, that the Legislature would control the purse-strings. But, at first, the results were none too good. Dr. Frank MacKinnon, principal of Prince of Wales College, Charlottetown, in a booklet published by the Prince Edward Island Travel Bureau, thus describes the situation. "From 1851 to 1873, when the Island joined Confederation, provincial affairs were upset by almost unbelievable turmoil. Governors fought with their advisers. Ministers quarrelled among them-

selves and with the Legislature; and elections and party gatherings were occasions for bitter controversies over the land question, religious issues, railway building and federal union. Efficiency in government became impossible, with no less than fifteen governments in twenty-five years. The reasons were obvious. Political issues which might be sideshows in larger provinces were easily magnified out of all proportion to their deserved significance in a small area. Moreover, since qualified and available men were hard to secure in even the largest governments, small wonder if they were scarce on the Island. With only thirty members in the Legislature, and a government section of only sixteen and up, Premiers had the difficult task of selecting a nine-man Cabinet from a very limited panel. There was no sense in pretending the Ministers were all of Cabinet calibre. Government displayed most unusual idiosyncracies and public affairs suffered accordingly. The early difficulties were not without advantages however, for what was gained by many mistakes and severe lessons was later treasured, and it became manifest in profound respect for local self-government, however limited in extent and influence it might be."

Responsible government was a prelude to Confederation. For years, the advantages of a union between Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island had been discussed. Historically, it would have been a

reunion. For after the Conquest, the Island of St. John had been part of the Colony of Nova Scotia, and under the French Régime it had largely shared the fortunes of Acadia, even to the expulsion of some of its inhabitants in 1759 when it was occupied by a British force under Lord Rollo.

But the very forces which had separated the Island of St. John from Nova Scotia in 1769 and were to make another colony of New Brunswick 15 years later, had become ingrained in the mentality of the Islanders.

It was the same spirit of independence which would drive the New England colonies into revolt in 1776 that spurred the Islanders to set up shop for themselves as a separate colony, less than ten years after the threat of French domination had ceased. Islanders did not want to be ruled from Halifax in 1864 any more than in 1769.

Differences of opinion between Islanders and mainlanders were no new thing. An Intercolonial Railway had been proposed as early as 1824, and it was one of the chief topics of debate at a Railway Convention which was held in Portland, Maine, in 1850. But the provinces could not be brought to act together in the building of this Intercolonial Railway and the project hung fire.

The movement for union in 1864 was both political and economic. It largely sprang from the handicaps of

isolation, need for an intercolonial railway and for the removal of tariffs. In the spring of 1864, plans were made for a conference at Charlottetown, P.E.I. to discuss Maritime Union. On September 1, 1864, the Charlottetown Conference met in what is now known as the Confederation Room in the old Province Building of Charlottetown. But delegates to Charlottetown soon discovered that plans involving only the three Atlantic provinces would be extremely difficult to carry out. The deliberations were interrupted at an early stage by the arrival of delegates from United Canada (Ontario and Quebec) who had previously received permission from the Maritime delegates to attend their Conference. And there, in Charlottetown, twenty-six representatives of Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and United Canada (Ontario and Quebec) first officially discussed the union of British possessions in North America. A bronze tablet, placed on the wall of the Confederation Chamber in 1914 to mark the fiftieth anniversary of the Conference, bears this inscription: "In the hearts and minds of the delegates who assembled in this room on September 1st, 1864, was born the Dominion of Canada".

The Conference moved to Halifax and Saint John and finally to Quebec. The results of the Quebec Conference were embodied in seventy-two resolutions which became the basis of the British North America Act of



Confederation Chamber

1867. These, the delegates promised to get their respective legislatures to ratify. The Parliament of United Canada ratified the resolutions. But they struck some unexpected obstacles in the Maritimes. Prince Edward Island rejected the Quebec resolutions, the Legislative Council unanimously and the Assembly by a vote of twenty-three to five.

Prince Edward Island's rejection of Confederation in 1865 was emphatic. It was not represented at the Confederation Conference in London in December, 1866, although a generous offer was made to the colony through the leader of its Government who happened to be in London at the time.

This proposal was that $800,000 be given to the Island as an indemnity for loss of territorial revenue and to wipe out the holdings of the landlords, which had always been a source of friction and unrest. The Legislature listened to the suggestion and turned it down. In 1869 Canada offered even better terms, but they were rejected also.

It took the pressure of serious financial trouble to overcome the independence of the Islanders. The little Government of Prince Edward Island caught the railway fever, started to launch a line across the Island and issued railway debentures for a very large amount. No sooner had the debentures been thrown on the market than a depression came, and banking houses would not negotiate for the securities unless the Island became a part of Canada.

This argument turned the trick. Prince Edward Island joined the new Canadian nation 1 July, 1873, "in a high state of jubilation and quite under the impression that it is the Dominion that has been annexed to Prince Edward," as the Governor General, Lord Dufferin, wrote at the time. There was a tentative understanding that ferry service would connect Prince Edward Island to the mainland and a tunnel to the same point would be built. Ferry service was, indeed, given. But the tunnel never

came and, until the outbreak of the First World War, it remained a source of threats of secession.

"Even the most casual observer of Prince Edward Island history", Dr. MacKinnon comments further, "understands that the Island did not enter Confederation willingly. She was forced into it by political pressure, economic circumstances and her own mistakes. She faced virtual ruin in 1873, largely because of political unrest and scandalous corruption in railway building, and her public men took refuge in Confederation as a convenient way out. In a sense, union saved the system of responsible government for the Island. Aside from the prevention of financial ruin, there was the submerging of the turmoil of colonial politics in larger national issues. Instead of fighting one another on local controversies over land, religion and railroads, public men became involved in tariff problems, interprovincial trade, federal subsidies, or, in general, the growing pains of a new nation. This progress had a salutary effect on provincial affairs, for never since Confederation has Island politics been so unsteady as it was in the two decades immediately preceding union. A partial settlement of the land question, the provision of transportation facilities, federal financial assistance and countless other items comprised the benefits resulting from the partnership with neighbouring provinces in a growing Canada. For a few years after

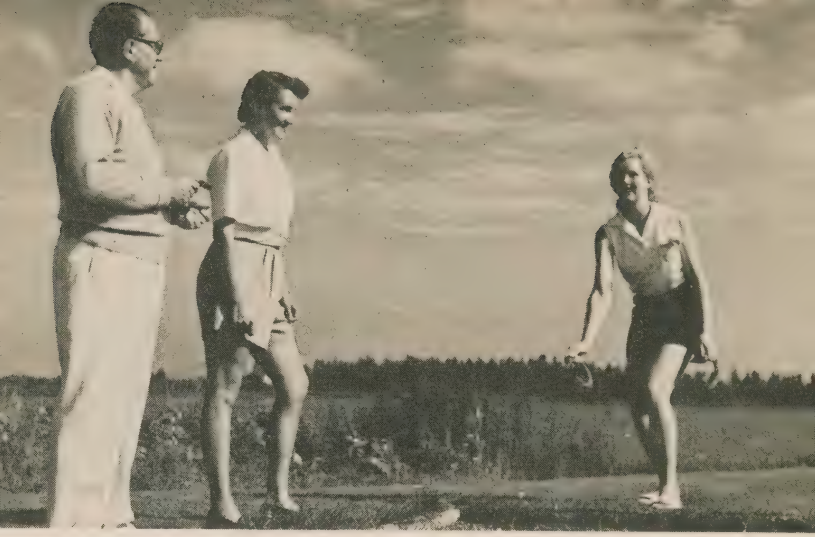


Government House

union, many Islanders felt that such benefits were not worth the loss of their independence; indeed they once hung black crepe on the Provincial Building as their recognition of Dominion Day. But most of them realized that association with Ottawa was better than the aloofness of Downing Street and the unwelcomed influence of absentee proprietors, and anti-union feeling rapidly declined."

The Government of Prince Edward Island is now vested in a Lieutenant-Governor, appointed by the Governor-General-in-Council and an Executive Council of nine members chosen from the members of the Legis-





Pitching Horseshoes

lative Assembly of 30 members, one-half of whom are elected by general vote and the other half by the property holders of the Province. The Province is represented in the Federal Parliament by four members of the House of Commons and four Senators. The Island is divided into the three counties of Kings, Queens and Prince, Queens returning two members. There are no municipalities in the rural districts.

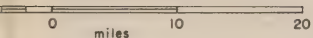
It says much for the appeal of Prince Edward Island that successive coiners of phrases have sought to give it some descriptive name which would distinguish it from all other provinces of Canada. Back in the earliest days

of which we know, the Micmacs called it *Abegweit, The House Cradled on the Waves.* Champlain called it *Île St-Jean* or St. John's Island. Then it took its present official name of Prince Edward Island. Later years have given it the more picturesque names of Canada's Garden Province, the Cradle of Confederation, the Million Acre Farm, the Home of the Silver Fox industry. But, to the Islanders themselves, it is just: "The Island" with accent on the definite article. It is the smallest of Canada's provinces. Its length is 140 miles. Its breadth varies from four to forty miles. Northumberland Strait separates it from the Canadian mainland, the Strait itself varying from nine to thirty miles in width. Deep inlets and tidal streams divide the island into three almost equal parts. Between the heads of streams flowing into Malpeque Bay on the north and Bedeque Bay on the south, the distance is less than a mile and a half. Nowhere does the land rise to a height of more than 500 feet. But its low rolling hills, its large fields of grass, grain and potatoes, its spruce hedgerows, its neatly painted farm buildings, its deep, rich, red earth and its winding, tidal inlets give the Island an appeal all its own. On the north shore, facing the Gulf, long beaches of fine sand are favoured resorts of the Summer visitor. On the south shore, facing Northumberland Strait, low cliffs of crumbling red sandstone and sandy coves are ideal for picnics and restful holidays by the sea.


PRINC
Tignish
CAPE KILDARE
Mount Pleasant
Malpeque Bay
Wellington
SUMMERSIDE
Bedeque Bay
Port Borden
CAPE TRAVERSE
Green Gabl
Rustico
NORTHUMBERLAND



EDWARD ISLAND







Law Courts

Prince Edward Island is the most completely and uniformly settled area in the Maritime Provinces. Its population of 98,000, by the 1951 Census, is predominantly rural, its economy largely dependent on agriculture. Population density has not increased for three-quarters of a century; the present population is almost entirely native-born.

Charlottetown (pop. 15,887) is capital of the Province and commercial and cultural centre of the whole Island. Its harbour is a well-protected basin about two miles in width, accessible from the sea through a short

strait with a navigable channel. From the basin, three salt-water estuaries stretch for many miles.

The first settlement in the Island was made across the harbour from the present city of Charlottetown. Near the entrance, the French in 1720 established Fort Lajoie. It consisted of an earthwork, a governor's house, barracks for a company of marines, a storehouse and a church named after St. John. A later settlement was that established by Count St. Pierre. It was known as Port Lajoie and established on the point of land overlooking the harbour entrance.

The dock area of Charlottetown has an array of warehouses. Immediately adjoining is a small industrial area. The compact downtown commercial and administrative area is concentrated about the square where stands the Province Building in which the 1864 Conference met which paved the way to Confederation.

As a manufacturing centre, Charlottetown accounts for nearly one-half the production of the Province. Its industry consists for the most part of processing agricultural products and the making of small articles. Fish curing, printing and publishing and the baking industry are also important. The city has nearly one-half the retail trade of the Island and two-thirds of the wholesale trade. It is also centre of the Island's tourist trade.

Agriculture

Summerside, with a population of 6,500, is the most important town in the western part of the Island. Picturesquely situated on Bedeque Bay, Summerside is the centre of the oyster and fox farming industries. On the outskirts of Summerside is located the Federal Government Experimental Fox Ranch where problems of the fur-breeding industry are studied.

From Georgetown, on the eastern shore, steamers carry farm produce to Pictou, N.S., Newfoundland and other places.

Agriculture is the Island's main industry. Its deep, red soil is extremely fertile. The Island is cultivated virtually from end to end. Of a total area of 2,184 square miles, net productive land covers an area of 1,844 square miles. Approximately 475,000 acres are under cultivation. Potatoes are probably the Island's most famous crop. They are exported in large quantities. Seed potatoes from the Island are particularly in demand. For many years, the Island has produced certified seed potatoes with great success. Other agricultural exports include dairy products, beef, bacon, fruit and poultry. No cattle are permitted into Prince Edward Island unless they are completely free from tuberculosis. Among advantages enjoyed by the Island farmer are: (1) a fertile and responsive soil, (2) good average precipitation and



Spraying Potatoes

abundant fresh water, (3) abundance of such natural fertilizers as seaweed and kelp, (4) high development of co-operation, (5) a centrally located experimental farm and (6) good natural harbours on the south and east shores. The annual value of field crops is more than $15 million.

Next in importance to agriculture is the harvest of the sea. The value of the annual catch is over $3 million. Sixty-eight fish-processing establishments give employment to a large number on the Island. Chief fish caught are cod, mackerel, herring, smelts, oysters and lobsters. Malpeque oysters from Malpeque Bay are famous for quality and flavour. To ensure an abundant supply, the Federal Department of Fisheries strictly supervises the lobster and oyster industries. In 1950, the landed value of the lobster catch was $2 million.



Grading Oysters

The wonderfully beautiful trees which aroused the admiration of Jacques Cartier have now largely given way to agricultural land. There are still beautiful trees on the Island but no large forest areas. Nor are there any minerals. Neither mining nor lumbering is therefore carried on commercially. Water-power sites are limited in size to those used for small mills. Manufacturing concerns on the Island number approximately 234. They represent a capital investment of around $4 million. The



annual value of manufactured products is more than $11 million.

The Island is the home of the fox-breeding industry. Its pioneers were Charles Dalton and Robert Oulton. Their enterprise was successful. Others followed their example and large sums were invested. For many years black, silver and platinum foxes played a highly important part in the economy. With changes in fur fashions, however, and the rise of competition, the price of pelts decreased rapidly and the industry declined. There are still fox farms on the Island. The quality of the pelts is high but financial returns are not regarded as encouraging.

Once isolated, the Island is now well served with communications throughout the year. Northumberland Strait, which separates the Island from the mainland, has always been and is still the chief means of sea communication. Back in the old Indian days, summer communication was by canoe from Cape Tormentine, on the mainland, to Cape Traverse, on the Island. In winter, there was no communication. In 1827, a regular winter mail service was established on the old Micmac route from Cape Tormentine to Cape Traverse by ice-boats so constructed as to slide over the ice when they could not be rowed in open water. Later, ice-breaking steamers ran from Pictou, Nova Scotia, to Georgetown, P.E.I. A



Monument to Fox Farm Pioneers, Alberton

passenger steamer also ran in summer between Point du Chêne, New Brunswick, and Summerside, P.E.I.

The Island is now served by two ferry systems. Two Canadian National Railway ferries ply all the year round between Borden, P.E.I. and Cape Tormentine, New Brunswick, carrying trains, buses, trucks and automobiles. Northumberland Ferries Ltd. runs two auto ferries from April to November between Wood Islands, P.E.I. and Caribou, Nova Scotia. Maritime Central Airways operates daily trips between Moncton, New Brunswick, and Summerside and Charlottetown on Prince Edward Island. Connections are made at Moncton by planes



St. Dunstan's College

from Boston and New York with Trans-Canada Air Lines. Maritime Central Airways also operates daily flights to and from Halifax, New Glasgow and Sydney, Nova Scotia.

Primary education is free and compulsory throughout the Province. The Island has two institutions of higher learning, both in Charlottetown: Prince of Wales College and Saint Dunstan's College. Prince of Wales College is a publicly-owned, non-denominational junior college, established in 1835. It comprises the last two years of high school, the first two years of university, a



normal school, a school of commerce and pre-professional training in medicine, dentistry, engineering, law and agriculture. Saint Dunstan's College, a Catholic institution established in 1855, includes two years of high school and four university years for students from the Island and from other provinces.

A library service of the first rank plays a highly important part in the Island's educational system. The system arose curiously. Library specialists, looking the Island over, considered that its population of less than a hundred thousand, scattered over two thousand square miles, offered an excellent field for a library demonstration. Over a three-year period, from 1933 to 1936, the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation gave $95,000 for the establishment of a free circulating library system. At the end of the three-year period, the Government of the Island decided to continue the service at its own expense. Now, books are circulating through twenty-four branch libraries in all sections of the Island. Every rural school has a complete library service.

The Island Regional Library also greatly helped the adult education movement. When the system was first established, there were no special groups interested in the education of adults. Many study clubs now operate in all parts of the Island. Activities begun by these groups

include credit unions, fishermen's unions, co-operative factories and co-operative stores.

Geography—the situation of the Island—has largely determined the characteristics of the Island people. The Province is situated in the Gulf of St. Lawrence between latitudes 46° and 47° N and between 62° and 64° 30′ W longitude. The average temperature varies from about 16 degrees F. in January to 66 degrees F. in July. Extremes in temperature, humidity and precipitation are rare. Since the entire Island is a gently rolling lowland, nowhere more than a few miles from the sea, the climate is generally uniform. And avoidance of extremes is a natural characteristic of the people. Size and structure of the Island, too, have exerted their influence. The total area of 2,184 square miles is only one-tenth of one per cent of the total land area of Canada. With more than forty persons per square mile, the Island is the most densely populated province of Canada.

The population is made up of descendants of English, Irish, Scottish and French pioneers. After the Napoleonic Wars, groups of settlers came from the British Isles to find new homes in Canada. Practically every year from 1815 to 1867 one or more shiploads of settlers arrived on the Island, gradually increasing the population. The first official Census of 1827 gave a population of 23,266 and that of 1871 a total of 94,021. By 1891,

the population had increased to 109,078. Then it gradually decreased until, in 1931, there were only 88,038 people left. The 1941 Census gave a total of 95,057. The latest Census figures give a population of 97,878.

The 1941 Census gave a rural population of 70,707, an urban population of 24,340. One-third of the people, i.e., 32,669, were of Scottish descent; English, 27,383; Irish, 18,459 and French, 14,799. The leading religions were: Anglican, 5,739; Baptist, 5,443; Church of Christ, 1,115; Presbyterian, 14,725; Roman Catholic, 42,743; United Church, 24,005.

The decrease in population is attributed both to a declining birth rate and to the fact that many of the Island people, seeking wider opportunities, have migrated to other parts of Canada and to the United States. It is estimated that over 17,000 Island-born Canadians are living in other parts of Canada.

Prince Edward Island's exertions in the First and Second World Wars were very great. Sacrifices to the common cause brought a new feeling of community with the nation at large and many old political issues evaporated under the pressure of world events.

Federal records show that 3,696 Prince Edward Islanders enlisted in the Canadian Army in 1914-1918, and 318 of them became fatal casualties. Figures in that

war were compiled on the basis of place of enlistment. It is known that many men from the Island enlisted in Halifax and other places in Canada, and so these figures do not give a true picture of the total. No figures are available for Canadian Naval enrolments in the First World War by provinces, and there was no Canadian Air Force as such, although many Canadians did serve in the Royal Air Force.

Enlistment figures for the Second World War are based on the home address given by the recruit at the time of enlistment and so the part played by Prince Edward Islanders between 1939 and 1945 can be more exactly assessed.

The Island gave Canada 9,698 men between 1939 and 1945. That was 49·6 per cent of all males aged between 18 and 45 in the 1941 Census. Of this total, 1,476 joined the Navy, 6,563 went into the Army and the Air Force drew 1,659. Total fatal casualties were 461, of whom 39 were in the Navy, 315 in the Army and 107 in the Air Force.

Islanders, detached from the rest of Canada to some extent, were perhaps slow to realize at first, when War broke out in August 1914, that a great world struggle had started. Nevertheless, recruiting began at once.

Highland Battalion

Toward the end of August, some 30 infantry officers and men left for Valcartier Camp to serve in the First Canadian Contingent. In November, more than 50 men joined the 26th Overseas Battalion at St. John, N.B. And in the spring and summer of 1915, over 100 went to Sussex, N.B. to serve with the 55th Overseas Battalion.

It was decided, 6 August, 1915, at a meeting of the Prince Edward Island Patriotic Society, that the Island should raise a complete Company of Infantry of its own for overseas service. Ottawa agreed and recruits enlisted so fast that in due course formation of a Highland Battalion was authorized.

By 15 March, 1916, the Battalion was at full strength. In fact, 1,142 men had been enlisted. By the middle of June it was at Valcartier Camp and it sailed for overseas from Halifax at 6 a.m., 17 July.

Later in the year, while the Battalion was training at Shorncliffe, a draft of 280 men was ordered sent to the 13th and 14th Montreal Battalions in France, but the Minister of Militia, who was in London, cancelled the draft and said that he intended to send the Battalion to France as a unit.

But in November and December, three large drafts were taken. One reinforced the 25th Nova Scotia Batta-

lion, one went to the 13th Montreal Highlanders and another was sent to the 14th Montreal Battalion. This was the beginning of the end. Prince Edward Island's 105th Battalion was amalgamated with the 104th, 22 January, 1917, and the unit passed out of existence. Remaining personnel were distributed between the 104th and the 13th New Brunswick Reserve Battalion.

During the Second World War, the Island had several units of its own:

The Prince Edward Island Highlanders. Mobilized 1 January 1941; served in Newfoundland and in Canada's Pacific Command. Sailed for the United Kingdom in January 1945. Disbanded there, 18 January 1945, to provide reinforcements.

2nd Corps Defence Company (The Prince Edward Island Light Horse). Mobilized 27 February 1941 and designated 1st Canadian Armoured Brigade Headquarters Squadron (The Prince Edward Island Light Horse). Reorganized, 1 November 1943, and redesignated 2nd Corps Defence Company. Served in the Normandy bridgehead, the pursuit through France and Belgium and in Holland and Germany. In early April 1945, held a section of the Twenthe Canal. Disbanded 15 February 1946.

8th Heavy Anti-Aircraft Battery, RCA. Mobilized 1 September 1939 as 8th Medium Battery, converted and

renamed 24 May 1941. Served with 2nd Heavy Anti-Aircraft Regiment (Mobile) of 2nd Army Group, RCA, in France, Belgium, Holland and Germany. Disbanded 7 September 1945.

2nd Medium Battery, RCA. Mobilized 1 September 1939. Served with 1st Medium Regiment, 1st Army Group, RCA, in Italy and Holland. Disbanded 1 September 1945.

No. 21 Field Ambulance RCAMC. Details of No. 21 Field Ambulance placed on active service, 1 September 1939 and disbanded 31 December 1940. Details of No. 21 (Reserve) Field Ambulance mobilized, 1 January 1941 and disbanded 7 October 1941. No. 22/21 Field Ambulance mobilized, 24 May 1940 and recruited in Halifax, N.S., and Charlottetown, P.E.I. Redesignated No. 22 Field Ambulance, 15 June 1941. Served with 3rd Canadian Infantry Division in France, Belgium, Holland and Germany. Disbanded 19 October 1945.

Prince Edward Island's first connection with the Royal Canadian Navy came in 1922, shortly after the Naval Service of Canada was reorganized following the First World War. The Charlottetown Half-Company was formed to recruit men for the Royal Canadian Naval Volunteer Reserve and in 1935 the establishment became the Charlottetown Naval Reserve Division. During the

Second World War, while serving as a manning depot and training establishment, the division was commissioned *HMCS Queen Charlotte* and here some 3,000 men received their basic training before going out to man the ships of the RCN. Four of these ships of war bore names well known in Prince Edward Island:

HMCS Charlottetown (first of the name). Flower class corvette, commissioned 13 December 1941; served on convoy duty in the Atlantic and St. Lawrence. Sunk by a German submarine off Cap Chat, 11 September 1942, with the loss of her Commanding Officer and eight of her men.

HMCS Charlottetown (second of the name). River class frigate, commissioned 28 April 1944; served with RCN Support Group *EG 16,* a "hunter-killer" group trained to seek out and destroy U-boats.

HMCS Summerside. Flower class corvette, commissioned 11 September 1941; served on convoy duty in the Atlantic and, with *Operation Torch* corvettes, supported Allied landings in North Africa in the winter of 1942-43.

HMCS Malpeque. Bangor minesweeper. Commissioned 4 August 1941; operated with RCN's 31st Minesweeping Flotilla clearing mines from the English Channel on the eve of D-Day.

Air Force

The first Royal Canadian Air Force installation in Prince Edward Island was a Service Flying Training School at Summerside, with relief fields at Mount Pleasant and Wellington, which went into operation in January 1941 and remained at Summerside for 18 months. In July 1942, a General Reconnaissance School was opened at Summerside and continued until the summer of 1945, training pilots for coastal duties with the RCAF, RAF and RNZAF. It was reduced to care and maintenance until the summer of 1947, when training in navigation was commenced and carried on on a small scale for a year. Since 1948, the Summerside station has grown gradually into an important RCAF Central Navigation School, with three advanced courses, two for future instructors and one for the most advanced and theoretical study of navigation. A detachment of the Royal Canadian Navy is also on the site.

The first Air Navigation School in Prince Edward Island was formed by the RAF at Charlottetown, 18 July 1941, and operated until 15 September 1942, when it was disbanded.

The RCAF established a Canadian Air Navigation School at Charlottetown, 21 February 1944, and it operated until 7 July 1945.

In the late winter of 1941, the Royal Air Force opened No. 31 Reconnaissance School at Charlottetown and operated it until the summer of 1945. A Bombing and Gunnery School was operated from the fall of 1943 to the fall of 1944 at Mount Pleasant, and a Radar Unit ran for three years, from 30 September 1942, at Tignish.

Prince Edward Island has many historic spots, many historic associations: Sylvester Point, where Jacques Cartier first saw Prince Edward Island in 1534; Cape Kildare, originally Cap d'Orleans, where he went ashore in his longboats and saw trees wonderfully beautiful and very fragrant; Champlain, who gave the Island its first European name of Île St-Jean; the sites of the old French settlements of St. Pierre and de Roma; Rustico, where Acadians settled two centuries ago; the Belfast district, where the industry and enterprise of early Scottish settlers are still a happy memory and, coming to more modern days, the Province Building in Charlottetown, where Canadian Confederation was born.

In the room, now known as Confederation Chamber, the chairs, cabinet, book-cases and mahogany table remain as they were when the Fathers of Confederation first met. And the Island has a history, dating back earlier than Cartier, a history of hardy seamen from Eng-



land and France who ventured into those distant waters for the abundant harvests of the sea. But it is so far an unrecorded history, based on not very much more than tradition.

In 1937, a national park was established along the north shore of The Island for a distance of nearly twenty-five miles. Its outstanding features are its wonderful sea beaches, beaten broad and smooth by the constant action of the surf. The miles of silver sand provide safe sea bathing with a summer water temperature warmer than at points many miles to the south, along the Atlantic coast. Green Gables, known to thousands of readers of Lucy Maud Montgomery's novel *Anne of the Green Gables* is in the western section of the park. The original building, now used as a tea-room, has been preserved in all its details. *Haunted Wood, Lover's Lane,* the *Lake of Shining Water* and other points connected with the *Anne* stories are in the immediate neighbourhood.

And there you have Prince Edward Island, the smallest province in the Canadian Confederation. Off the beaten track, if you will, lacking many economic advantages, yet a land of infinite appeal. Year by year, thousands of visitors find new health and strength among its green fields, its rolling hills, on its sailing waters and

Sailing

beaches and by its fishing streams. And above and beyond these, they find a people hospitable, kindly and of unfailing courtesy.

The Micmacs, after all, were right. For, through the changing years, the Island Province remains: *Abegweit, the House Cradled on the Waves.*

HOW TO USE THIS PAMPHLET

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND

This is Article No. 7 in the CITIZENSHIP SERIES of CURRENT AFFAIRS pamphlets.

Read this pamphlet carefully, make notes and follow a definite plan in presenting your material in the Discussion Hour.

The headings in the pamphlet are arranged so that you can present your material in an orderly manner.

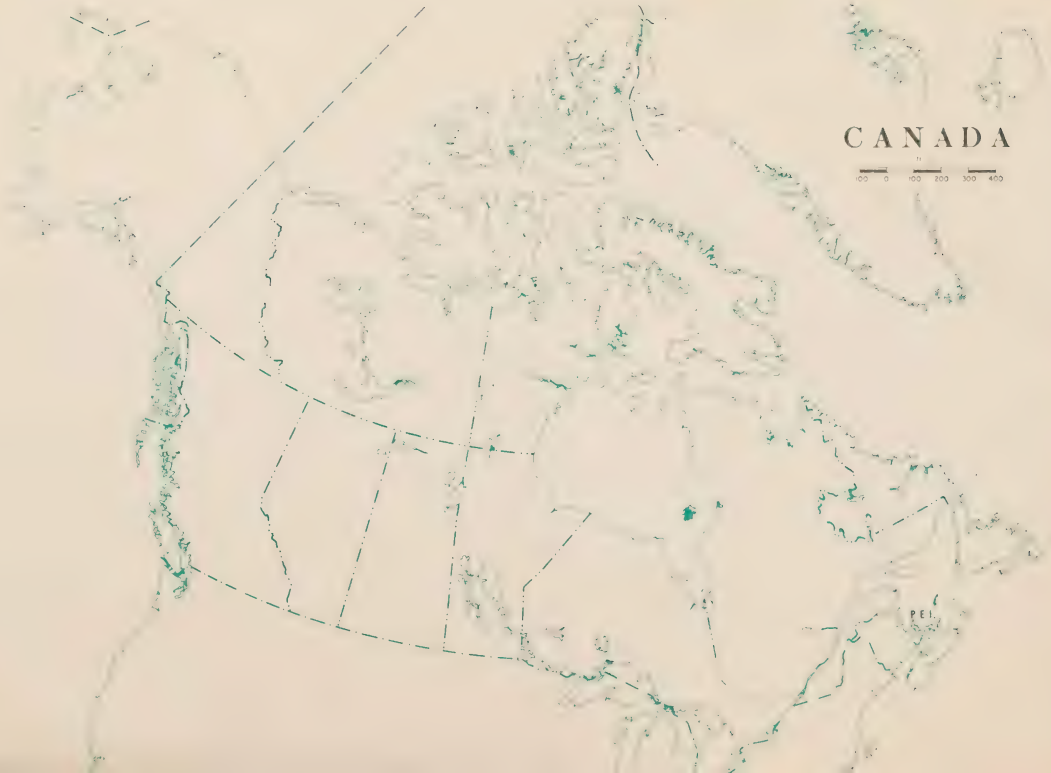
Place-names can be found on the accompanying map which should be referred to frequently so as to familiarize the group with the geography of the Province.

The following questions are suggested for discussion at the end of the presentation of your material:

1. Under what circumstances did Prince Edward Island enter Confederation?
2. What are the principal geographic and climatic features of Prince Edward Island?
3. What are the principal industries of Prince Edward Island?
4. What are Prince Edward Island's problems of transport and communication?

Do not forget to make a summary of the discussion in the last five minutes of the hour.

EDMOND CLOUTIER, C.M.G., O.A., D.S.P.
QUEEN'S PRINTER AND CONTROLLER OF STATIONERY, OTTAWA, 1954


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NOVA SCOTIA

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Citizenship

no. 8

FOR THE CANADIAN FORCES

Government
Publications

The eighth of a series of pamphlets on Canadian Citizenship, prepared especially for the Armed Forces by the Bureau of Current Affairs.

The Province of Nova Scotia

No. 8

BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, CANADA

Introduction

In a foreword to the first of the regular series of *Current Affairs* pamphlets issued in October, 1951, the Minister of National Defence stated that service personnel "should know as much as possible about Canada . . .".

Accordingly, the Bureau of Current Affairs has initiated a series of citizenship pamphlets. In this series five have been published to date dealing with the following topics:—

The Canadian Constitution
How Parliament Works
Local Government
The Serviceman and His Vote
The Public Service of Canada.

We are now issuing citizenship pamphlets which tell about the ten provinces of Canada and Yukon and the Northwest Territories. This material will supplement the first five pamphlets.

We sincerely hope that service personnel will obtain a broader understanding and deeper appreciation of their country from a study and discussion of this material.

HARRY R. LOW
Director, Bureau of Current Affairs

The Province of Nova Scotia

Nova Scotia is in a region that includes New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, most of Newfoundland and much of Quebec south of the St. Lawrence River.

It is a hilly region, much cut up by rivers, but the hills are not very high and the rivers not very long. The combination of hills and rivers, at the seashore, results in an exceptionally broken coastline with numerous good harbours.

In most of the river valleys the soil is quite fertile. The hills are less so, but they are capable of supporting a heavy growth of timber.

Regarded as a whole, the Appalachian-Acadian Region is well endowed with mineral deposits although each provincial unit does not necessarily have any great variety of minerals. Much of all the asbestos mined in Canada to date has come from the Quebec section, much of the coal from the Nova Scotia section and much of the iron from the Newfoundland section. Recent discoveries and explorations have indicated base metals possibilities.

Area

The hills of the region were originally well wooded, and, never having been particularly suited to agriculture, are coming to be regarded as a perpetual source of lumber and pulpwood. Modern methods of forestry, with harvesting and replanting, are being introduced. Some of the country's largest pulp and paper mills are located in the Appalachian-Acadian area.

Farming, dairying, fruit growing in the valleys, lumbering in numerous upland districts, mining where there are mineral deposits, shipping where there are good harbours—the economic activities of the region spring largely from the physical geography. Another element of the geography lays the foundation for another industry of the Maritimes, fishing. The waters of the Atlantic for a considerable distance from shore are of moderate depth. The continental shelf region, with its various "banks"—areas where the depth is less than the average of the shelf —is exceptionally rich in sea-food. It teems with cod, haddock, hake, flounder, plaice and a dozen other marketable species.

Within this Appalachian-Acadian Region, Nova Scotia itself has an area of 21,068 square miles. The Province is a peninsula and an island, Cape Breton Island, which together form the southern shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It is smaller than any other province ex-

cept its neighbour, fifteen miles away, Prince Edward Island. It is joined to New Brunswick by the 17-mile-wide Chignecto Isthmus, and separated from the same province by the Bay of Fundy. On the east, Nova Scotia faces the open Atlantic.

The Province has a total length of 374 miles. The peninsular part is about 275 miles long, from southwest to northeast, and from 50 to 100 miles wide. The Island of Cape Breton is about 110 miles long and about 80 miles wide. Nobody in the Province lives more than 40 or 50 miles from the sea.

The salt-water boundaries of Nova Scotia are of unusual interest. The geographical location and funnel-like shape of the Bay of Fundy produce some of the world's highest tides, particularly in the two arms, Chignecto Bay and Minas Basin, which run far inland from the main bay.

Between the northern end of Cape Breton Island and Newfoundland is Cabot Strait, one of the significant waterways in history, the route into the Gulf of St. Lawrence for the exploration, settlement and development of the northern half of a continent. To the east the Atlantic provides the maritime wealth of fish and shipping.

An internal salt-water boundary should also be mentioned, the Strait of Canso. It is the long, narrow, canal-

like division between Cape Breton Island and the rest of the Province. It is about a mile wide. After centuries of communication and transportation across it by ferry, it has now been bridged by a causeway.

Inside those salt-water boundaries, Nova Scotia presents a great variety of physical features in a comparatively small space. This variation in the terrain is of such fundamental importance to the people that there are no settlements anywhere in the Province except in the valleys and at the seacoast. Almost without exception, the higher elevations are unoccupied land.

The coastline itself is so much indented that, if one could stretch it out in a straight line, it would reach from Halifax to Vancouver and more than 1,000 miles out into the Pacific. There are 4,625 miles of Nova Scotia coastline, with some of the indentations forming harbours unsurpassed anywhere in the world and literally hundreds of them offering snug shelter for fishing boats and other small craft.

Much of the farm population of Nova Scotia lives in the Annapolis Valley, the Minas Basin region, the Northumberland Lowlands, the Pictou Basin and the Antigonish-Guysborough Lowlands. The greatest density of rural population is where the Annapolis Valley stretches northeastward to the Minas Basin.



In the Annapolis Valley

The Annapolis Valley is an extraordinary fold between two ridges which run for about 75 miles parallel to each other and to the shore of the Bay of Fundy. Between the Valley and the Bay is North Mountain. Seen from the Valley, the "mountain" is a long, steep escarpment with an elevation of 500 to 700 feet above sea level. It is actually an ancient up-tilted ridge of lava or trap rock.

On the southern side of the Valley is the other ridge, South Mountain. It is 100 feet or so higher than North Mountain and consists mostly of granite rather than volcanic rock. In the valley floor, between the two ridges, is some of Canada's finest orchard land.

The northern end of the Annapolis Valley merges into the thickly settled farm lowland that surrounds the Minas Basin. A few miles north of the latter there is

thinly settled higher land that culminates in the Cobequid Mountains, but the elevation then drops down to the Northumberland lowland which extends all along the Nova Scotia shore of Northumberland Strait. Occupied land is practically continuous throughout this north shore region of Nova Scotia from the Isthmus of Chignecto to the Strait of Canso, although the land becomes rougher and less fertile toward the east.

The Cobequid Mountains are in reality a plateau about 900 feet above sea level with a few hills rising an additional 100 to 200 feet. The range of hills covers an area that is about twelve miles wide and 85 miles long.

Much of Pictou County and all of the Cape George section of Antigonish County is an upland formed on hard, old Precambrian rocks; but the remainder of Antigonish and part of Guysborough form the Antigonish-Guysborough lowlands.

On the Atlantic side of Nova Scotia, there is not a great deal of useful agricultural land except in the region near Lunenburg. A farming district of considerable size extends inland from this noted fishing and shipbuilding town, but the farms are not all full-time enterprises. Some of the farmers spend part of their time fishing and part of it farming. Others supplement farm incomes with work in lumbering and shipbuilding.

A somewhat similar agricultural region extends along the western shore, the district between Yarmouth and the head of St. Mary Bay.

The land from the Atlantic shore slopes gradually upward across the whole breadth of Nova Scotia, throughout most of the southeastern part of the Province, until it reaches the top of the escarpment called South Mountain along the Annapolis Valley.

Much of this slope is rough and rocky with a patchy forest cover. Indeed, a large part of the interior of the Nova Scotia peninsula is rough, rocky, forested and very scantily populated. It is unsuited to agriculture, and the economic activities are lumbering, cutting pulpwood and a little mining.

Cape Breton Island presents the boldest and most variegated scenic vistas of the Province. If a land can be mountainous without any part of it being much over 1,000 feet above sea level, Cape Breton has regions which are mountainous. There are seven or eight ranges of hills and "mountains".

The island is much cut up by short rivers and the beautiful lakes, channels and associated waterways of the Bras d'Or region.



A Cape Breton Valley

The Nova Scotia climate shows strongly the influence of the sea which so nearly surrounds the Province. The average temperatures are lower in summer and higher in winter than they would be otherwise. The water of the Bay of Fundy is cold, but it is warm enough to give the nearby Annapolis Valley a long frost-free growing season. At the southern end of the Annapolis Valley the average length of the annual frost-free period is 160 days, and in no part of Nova Scotia does the annual frost-free period average less than 100 days.

Within this general framework of a maritime type of climate there is considerable climatic variation. There is comparatively little fog, for example, on the coast fac-

ing Prince Edward Island, but the Bay of Fundy side and the South Shore facing the Atlantic are among the foggiest regions of the world. The northern part of Cape Breton Island gets nearly three more feet of snow than do the south and west coasts of the peninsula. There is a 15-inch difference in annual rainfall between the interior of Nova Scotia and its shore facing the Atlantic. All along the latter shore the annual rainfall is the greatest in Eastern Canada except in a small part of Newfoundland which has about the same amount of rainfall.

All of Nova Scotia is south of any part of British Columbia and it is interesting to contrast the climate of Vancouver with that of Halifax. Both climates get their characteristics mainly from the sea, but the western side of the North Atlantic is a vastly different sea from the eastern side of the North Pacific.

At Vancouver the January mean temperature is about 35 degrees while at Victoria, on Vancouver Island, it is about 40 degrees. At Halifax it is about 25 degrees. At Victoria only a minimum of heating equipment is needed in a house, but at Halifax it is a good idea to have a furnace that is adequate for the occasional day of zero weather.

The Province now known as Nova Scotia may have been the first part of the North American continent inhabited by Europeans.

Discovery

After the discovery of the New World by Lief Ericsson in 1000 A.D., an attempt at founding a settlement was made by an Icelandic expedition which Thorfinn Karlsefni led in 1003. The expedition, in three ships, spent nearly three years in explorations of what is now the Canadian Atlantic coast and perhaps also some of the New England coast. Two winters were spent on the shores of a large bay which may have been on either the Nova Scotia or the New Brunswick coast; then the settlement attempt was abandoned.

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries there may have been something like an elementary timber trade between the Norse colony in Greenland and some part of the Canadian coast, but there is only one record of it. In 1347, a timber ship, that had been driven far off course by storms, arrived in Iceland.

The record becomes a bit more definite with the name of John Cabot. At five o'clock on Saturday morning, June 24, 1497, Cabot took possession for Henry VII of land which historians thought was Cape Breton Island. Recent research by T. E. Layng of the Public Archives staff suggests it was Labrador or the north shore of the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

It was not the English but the French who were the first settlers and colonists.

The first attempt at settlement after the voyages of John and Sebastian Cabot, in any part of what is now Canada, was made on Sable Island about a hundred miles off the Nova Scotia coast. The leader of the attempt was a Frenchman, the Baron de Léry. He reached Sable Island with a shipload of colonists in 1518, but the obvious unsuitability of the place for habitation forced the return of the entire group to France.

After Jacques Cartier and Jean François de la Roque, Sieur de Roberval, made their voyages of exploration and unsuccessful settlement between 1534 and 1542, no Canadian colonization was attempted by France until 1598. In that year, the Marquis de la Roche undertook to found a colony. Carrying forty convict-settlers, his ship reached Sable Island where the men were landed. Only eleven survived the storms and privations of the island and their survival may have been possible only because the descendants of cattle left by De Léry provided food. The eleven were eventually returned to France.

The first temporarily successful French settlement was at Port Royal. Ships sailed from France in 1604. The expedition had as its leader Pierre du Gast, Sieur de Monts, whose lieutenants included Samuel de Champlain, the Baron de Poutrincourt, and Pontgravé, who, with Pierre de Chauvin, had previously (1599) set up a fur-trading post at Tadoussac at the mouth of the Saguenay.



Replica of Champlain's Habitation at Port Royal

Poutrincourt liked the appearance of what is now Annapolis Basin and decided to establish himself there, calling the site Port Royal. Champlain attempted a settlement at the mouth of the St. Croix River, across the Bay of Fundy, but the site was not well chosen and, after a terrible winter, the survivors were moved in 1605 to Port Royal.

More settlers arrived from France. Excellent relations were established with the Indians. The colonists made good progress in gardening and farming. They had abundant fish and game. They built a water-powered mill to grind their grain—the first use in Canada of the hydro power that was later to play such an important part in the industrial development of the nation. They passed three winters in reasonable comfort. Then the little colony was wiped out by the stroke of a King's pen

and the colonists returned to France. Henry IV of France cancelled the colonial charter which he had granted to de Monts, and apparently it never occurred to any of the colonists to remain in the new land where they were doing so well.

When de Monts was back in the King's favour again, he and Champlain shifted their attention to the rock overlooking the St. Lawrence which Champlain had visited in 1603. In July, 1608, Champlain returned to the rock and founded Quebec.

Meanwhile, in 1610, the Baron de Poutrincourt returned to Port Royal, with a new charter from Henry IV, and began the establishment of Acadia.

With Port Royal as a starting point, and eventually as a provincial capital, other points of settlement were founded. At the peak of the French régime in what is now the Maritime Provinces, Acadia had a population of about 15,000.

The most thickly-settled districts were in the vicinity of Minas Basin, Cobequid Bay and Chignecto Bay; but there were also French settlements at the great fortress of Louisbourg on Cape Breton Island, at Fort Lajoie on Prince Edward Island and at some ten locations in what is now New Brunswick.

The Baronets

In 1613, the tiny Port Royal colony was destroyed by an armed party from the English settlements in Virginia. The Baron de Poutrincourt's son and several of his companions spent the next several years wandering in the forests with the Indians, and it was nearly twenty years before there was any further systematic French attempt to settle Acadia. However, missions and fur-trading posts were established. Meanwhile the English founded colonies at Plymouth, at Salem and at Boston on the New England coast and authorized the attempt at colonization from which Nova Scotia takes its name.

In 1621, all the land now included in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and the Gaspé Peninsula was granted by King James I of England (James VI of Scotland) to Sir William Alexander, Earl of Stirling, for the purpose of founding a colony. With the aim of promoting colonization and providing a governing group for the new land, Baronets of Nova Scotia (New Scotland) were created by James I in 1625. The first Scots colonists were landed at Port Royal in 1628, in the reign of Charles I.

The French about this time had a fort near the present Port Latour. It was built by a young man, Charles Amador de La Tour, who seems to have been the slickest colonial operator of the period. With the English and the French both claiming the new land, La Tour got

himself made a Baronet of Nova Scotia by Charles I of England and Lieutenant-General of Acadia by Louis XIII of France.

In 1632, the English, by the Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye, relinquished their claims to Acadia, and Cardinal Richelieu placed his great power and prestige behind a colonization effort. Richelieu appointed Isaac de Razilly as Lieutenant-Governor and head of the colonization project and the first really large group of colonists settled in the country. But La Tour's appointment had never been rescinded and after de Razilly's death in 1635, open strife occurred between La Tour and de Razilly's successor, Charnisay. The latter died in 1650 and La Tour married his widow. La Tour also obtained a new patent from the French king which made him Governor and Lieutenant-General of all Acadia.

In 1654, the country again fell into the hands of the English, and La Tour, now in his role of a Baronet of Nova Scotia, was apparently permitted by them to continue as commander of a fort which he occupied after Charnisay s death. The English held Acadia until 1667, when it was restored to France by the Treaty of Breda.

For nearly a quarter of a century France and England were at peace and the Acadians tilled their lands unmolested. But once again war broke out. In 1690,

Nicholson

Acadia changed hands twice in the same year, although many of the inhabitants probably did not realize it if they lived at any distance from Port Royal. For the next seven years, until the Treaty of Ryswick restored peace in 1697, the country suffered a succession of raids and counter-raids by small French and English forces.

War came again in 1702, and this time, so far as Acadia was concerned, it was war to a final decision. In 1707, two English attacks on Port Royal were beaten off by the French, but in 1710, a comparatively powerful fleet and a force of about 1,500 soldiers under the command of Colonel Francis Nicholson compelled the surrender of Port Royal, which was promptly renamed Annapolis Royal in honour of Queen Anne of England. By the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713, Nova Scotia, with the exception of the Île Royale (Cape Breton Island) formally and finally became British territory.

There was peace between France and England but conflict was sown in the minds of the Acadians. France offered inducements to them to move to Cape Breton Island, where the great fortress of Louisbourg was to be built. England offered to let those who would take the oath of British allegiance and become British subjects retain their property in the peninsula of Nova Scotia. From a third direction the Acadians were hard pressed



Church at Grand Pré

in a cold war; the Indian allies of the French threatened to massacre them if they took the oath of allegiance. The English, meanwhile, refused to let them migrate to Cape Breton Island, since that would add strength to the French there. Many of the Acadians, especially in the Annapolis district, subscribed to a modified oath of allegiance.

Later, in the War of the Austrian Succession, the French governor of Île Royale attacked Nova Scotia, and most of the Acadians assumed an attitude of strict neutrality. New Englanders under Pepperrell, supported by a British naval squadron under Warren, in turn attacked Louisbourg, which surrendered in 1745 after a 49-day siege. A strong fleet was sent from France to re-



Remains of Fort Louisbourg

capture Louisbourg but was so badly battered by storms that no attack could be made. By the Treaty of Aix-la-Chappelle, in 1748, Île Royale (Cape Breton) with its great fortress of Louisbourg was restored to France in exchange for Madras.

In the struggles between France and England, the English were at a comparative disadvantage in Nova Scotia because they had no successful settlements of their own. The attempt of the Earl of Stirling to found a colony, the occasion when Baronets of Nova Scotia were created, had only limited success over a very short period. To offset this disadvantage, 2,500 colonists, under the direction of Edward Cornwallis, were sent to Nova Scotia in 1749 and founded Halifax. Cornwallis was appointed Governor and Captain-General of Nova Scotia.

At first Cornwallis attempted to require the Acadians to take the normal form of the oath of allegiance rather than the modified form to which they had no great objection; but he soon relaxed these efforts after gaining an insight both into the character of the Acadians themselves and into the necessities of the military situation created by the proximity of the French stronghold of Louisbourg.

Cornwallis was succeeded by a Governor, Peregrine Hopson, who understood the Acadian situation intelligently and sympathetically. But Hopson was succeeded in turn by Charles Lawrence, perhaps one of history's most stupid administrators.

Lawrence decided that the Acadians would take the unmodified oath of allegiance or else he would expel them from the country. Some 6,000 Acadians were deported and scattered among various American colonies. Their homes were destroyed so that those who escaped to the woods would have no shelter if they returned.

The English colony at Halifax gave evidence of having been firmly established, and in 1758 it was granted an elective representative Assembly, a precedent which was to be of great importance in British colonial policy.

In the spring of that year, a British fleet of 23 ships brought 14,000 troops to Halifax in preparation for an

all-out attack on Louisbourg. The British land forces were commanded by Major-General Jeffrey Amherst. One of his brigade commanders was James Wolfe who, a year later, was to be the victor over Montcalm at Quebec.

The French Governor, Chevalier Drucour, maintained a heroic defence until July 27 when, with only three guns able to return the British fire, he surrendered the mighty fortress.

After France lost all her Canadian colonies, government from Halifax extended over what are now Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick. In 1769, Prince Edward Island was made a separate colony and given its own government. New Brunswick was also set up as a separate colony after an influx of United Empire Loyalists.

Between 1784 and 1828, many colonists came to Nova Scotia, chiefly from the Highlands of Scotland, the majority settling in the Pictou district. Fisheries, timber cutting and the building of wooden ships developed as important industries. In the eighteen-thirties and 'forties ships built in Nova Scotia were world-famous. The Province operated one-third as much ocean tonnage as was owned in all of France.

Responsible government was granted to the Province in 1848 after more than a decade of vigorous political campaigning led by Joseph Howe. In 1867, Nova Scotia with New Brunswick and the Provinces of Canada (Quebec and Ontario) joined in Confederation to form the Canadian nation.

There was a time when the densest French settlements in North America were in Acadia but the heartless expulsion of the Acadians shifted the population balance permanently. Yet there are now about five times as many Nova Scotians of French descent as there were French throughout the entire Maritimes before the expulsion. Those who escaped expulsion, those who returned to their homes later, and those who migrated from other provinces, now have 73,760 descendants.

Actually, that figure is probably far from representing the total number of Nova Scotians with some Acadian blood in their veins. It is the 1951 Census figure for those Nova Scotians whose first paternal ancestor in Canada was French. Likely there are many additional people in the Province who can claim Acadian ancestry through the maternal line or through intermarriage during the past two centuries.

The total population of Nova Scotia in the 1951 Census was 642,584. This gives a population density

of slightly over 30 persons to the square mile. The 73,760 people of French ancestry constitute between eleven and twelve per cent of the total population; 75 per cent of the people — 482,571 out of the 642,584 total — are of British Isles (English, Irish, Scottish or Welsh) ancestry and about 4½ per cent are of German and about 3¼ per cent are of Netherlands ancestry. People of Scandinavian ancestry form the next largest racial group in the Province, but there are only 3,193 of them. There are 2,720 native Indians.

Until the 1951 Census, Nova Scotia was one of the Provinces in which the population was classified as predominantly rural, but the tipping of the balance to the urban side has now occurred. The last Census classified 54 per cent of Nova Scotians as urban dwellers. Of the 297,753 listed as rural dwellers, 112,135 live on farms and the other 185,618 are residents of small rural or shore communities. Included among the latter are many of the fishermen.

It is incidentally interesting to note that Nova Scotia, in Census statistics at any rate, is more rural than Manitoba. On the other hand, it is considerably the most urbanized of any of the Canadian Atlantic Provinces.

Generally speaking, the Nova Scotia population has become fairly homogeneous; however, there are some regions where the characteristics of the original settlers are

still to some extent preserved and add colour to the regional life. Along the Digby-Yarmouth shoreline there are several neat and prosperous communities that are almost entirely French. There are other French communities in Inverness and Richmond Counties of Cape Breton Island. Smaller French groups are to be found in several other parts of the Province.

In the Lunenburg district, the descendants of Germans constitute the predominant element in the population and some German folkways are preserved in modified form, just as they are in the Kitchener district of Ontario.

Traces of a Yorkshire accent can be heard in Cumberland County which was originally settled mainly by Yorkshiremen. Colchester County was settled mainly by Irishmen who came, some directly from the north of Ireland and others indirectly by way of New Hampshire.

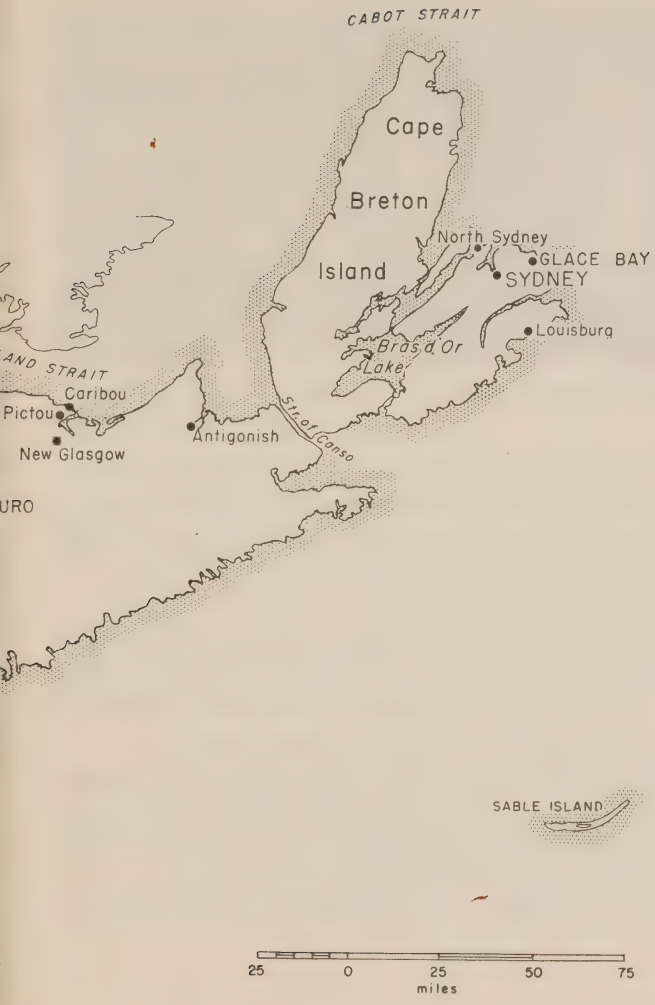
After the American Revolution, many thousands of United Empire Loyalists settled in Nova Scotia.

But the really striking racial group in Nova Scotia is the Scots. About 50,000 Highlanders came to Nova Scotia and settled mainly in Pictou and Antigonish Counties and in Cape Breton Island. So well have they preserved their Scottish accent and also the ancient Celtic language, Gaelic, that parts of Cape Breton seem more Scottish than Scotland itself. Indeed, the Gaelic language

NOVA SCOTIA



Amherst
Chignecto Bay
Springhill
Minas Basin
Grand Pré
Kentville
Wolfville
Windsor
BAY OF FUNDY
ANNAPOLIS VALLEY
Annapolis Royal
Digby
Lunenburg
Liverpool
Yarmouth
Wedgeport
CAPE SABLE


CABOT STRAIT
Cape
Breton
Island
North Sydney
GLACE BAY
SYDNEY
Louisburg
Bras d'Or
Lake
Caribou
Pictou
New Glasgow
Antigonish
Strait Canso
SABLE ISLAND
25
0
25
50
75
miles



Girls' Pipe Band

is in all probability more naturally preserved and commonly spoken in Cape Breton than in any other place in the world. So many speak it fluently that the Provincial Department of Education has a Gaelic Adviser in its Adult Education Division.

Nova Scotia has a Lieutenant-Governor, a Legislative Assembly of 37 members and an Executive Council (or Cabinet) of ten members including the Premier.

The Legislative Assembly is elected for a maximum duration of five years. It is interesting to note that the current Legislative Assembly is the 45th in the Province's history, and yet it is only the 22nd since Confederation.

The provincial Departments of Government at present are as follows: Provincial Secretary, the Provincial

Treasurer, the Attorney General, Education, Highways and Public Works, Mines, Municipal Affairs, Agriculture and Marketing, Public Welfare, Public Health, Labour, Lands and Forests and Trade and Industry.

The Chief Justice of Nova Scotia is the senior judge of the Nova Scotia Supreme Court. He is assisted by six puisne judges. All judges of the Supreme Court have jurisdiction in the Court of Divorce and Matrimonial Causes. They also have jurisdiction in bankruptcy cases. There is a District Judge in Admiralty of the Exchequer Court for the District of Nova Scotia.

Trial sittings of the Supreme Court are held in various locations throughout the Province. There is also a system of County Courts and County Court Judges for cases of lesser seriousness, and there are Magistrates' Courts in nearly all cities and towns of any size.

In education, Nova Scotia has a very old and very proud tradition. This second smallest province has six educational institutions of university status.

One of them, the University of King's College, is the oldest in Canada. Another of them, Dalhousie University, shared for more than a century, with McGill, Queen's and Laval, the responsibility and distinction of creating for Canada a high standing wherever academic freedom is cherished.

Universities

Three of the Nova Scotia universities are well over the century mark. King's was founded in 1789, Dalhousie in 1818, and Acadia University in 1838.

The other three degree-granting institutions are St. Francis Xavier University, known to all the world's sociologists for sponsoring and guiding the Antigonish co-operative movement; Saint Mary's University at Halifax, and the Nova Scotia Agricultural College at Truro.

Four of the six are denominational institutions. St. Francis Xavier and Saint Mary's are Roman Catholic; King's is Church of England; and Acadia is Baptist. Incidentally, the three Halifax universities provide a neat illustration of co-operation though they maintain completely separate identities. King's and Dalhousie are "associated" but not "affiliated". A King's undergraduate may spend much of his time in Dalhousie classrooms, taking lectures from Dalhousie professors. Meanwhile, Saint Mary's and King's, in one subject at least, have what might be described as an interlocking teaching staff; the same instructors in that subject are on the faculties of both institutions.

Dalhousie has faculties of Arts and Science, Law, Medicine, Dentistry and Graduate Studies. It has an Institute of Public Affairs and a School of Nursing. Among its affiliates are the Maritimes College of Pharmacy, The Halifax Conservatory of Music, the Mari-

times Academy of Music, and the Pine Hill Theological College of the United Church.

At Acadia University in Wolfville, in addition to the traditional liberal arts and pure sciences, there are such faculties and schools as Applied Science, Home Economics, Education, Theology, Music and Secretarial Science.

The University of King's College, in Halifax, depends heavily upon its association with Dalhousie for the training of its undergraduates in arts and science and concentrates its own courses mainly upon Church of England theological subjects. In one direction, however, King's has been a conspicuous pioneer. It is the sponsor, in co-operation with Saint Mary's University, of one of Canada's four schools of journalism at the university level. King's has a private school at the secondary educational level, King's College School, in Windsor, N.S.

Saint Mary's has faculties of Arts, Engineering and Commerce. It also has a private school at the high school level.

St. Francis Xavier teaches arts, science, home economics and various other disciplines but its international fame rests largely on its extension and adult education work. Years ago, members of the extension department of St. Francis Xavier analyzed the plight of many of the fishermen and farmers of the Antigonish region. They



Peggy's Cove

observed that they worked extremely hard but made very little economic progress; many of them were in fact virtually poverty-stricken in spite of their hard work. The extension department organized small study groups throughout the district. In these the adult students examined and learned the elementary principles of banking and co-operative business. When studies had proceeded far enough, a group would go on to the next stage, the setting up of a credit union. When the credit union was in strong enough financial condition, co-operative businesses, for the processing and marketing of fish and other produce and also for the purchase of supplies needed by the members, would be established.

The result has been a conspicuous rise in the standards of living of the district and an extension of the Antigonish type of co-operative program to various other regions of Canada and also to depressed regions of other countries.

The ideals and standards of education maintained in the universities permeate the Province's elementary and secondary school systems. The public school system is free to all children. There are secondary schools or academies in all the counties.

Technical education has not been neglected. In Halifax there is a provincial Technical College maintained by the Provincial Government. There are evening technical schools in many of the Province's towns.

Nova Scotia scenery, particularly the scenery of shore and sea and sheltered coves, is an inspiration both to her own artists and to the artists of other provinces. Peggy's Cove, for example, is so well known throughout Canada in paintings and in photographs that "important" artists have surrendered it to student painters and the cameras of tourists. But there are still plenty of other locations along the Nova Scotia coasts where the ceaseless fascination of the line where sea meets land remains to be depicted.

Nova Scotians are well provided with professional training in the fine arts at the Nova Scotia College of



The Weaver's Loom

Art and in the fine arts departments of some of the universities, notably Acadia. But the provincial interest in the arts is much wider than that which leads to a professional career. A remarkably large proportion of the people of the Province are interested in art or in handicrafts for cultural and recreational reasons and they receive warm encouragement and support from the Division of Adult Education of the Provincial Department of Education.

Among the projects sponsored by this Division is the Vacation School at Big Cove Camp in Pictou County. The Vacation School offers courses in Dramatics, Music and Painting. Tuition is free to all Nova Scotians, although there is a charge for living accommodation.

The Vacation School is only one of several projects sponsored by the Division of Adult Education. Halifax is the centre of adult education activities, but more than 60 smaller communities are reached.

A Ballet and a Little Theatre movement are active in Halifax. An interesting development is the Nova Scotia Opera Association, centred in Halifax but serving the entire Province. Opera draws large audiences not only in the provincial capital but in the smaller centres when the company goes on tour.



The Potter's Wheel

Agriculture

The extent of government encouragement for the arts in Nova Scotia is no mere matter of sentiment. For many generations many of the best educated Nova Scotians emigrated to more lucrative commercial opportunities in the Central Provinces of Canada and in the New England States. A large proportion of the Province's leaders believe that the encouragement of artistic and cultural activities, with a consequent increasing enjoyment of life by the population, is good competition for financial attractions elsewhere.

Nova Scotia's great primary industries are fishing, mining and farming. Forest industries were extremely valuable in the Province's early economy and are still carried on but with less relative importance than before.

Nova Scotia farmers have a total capital investment of over $160 million, an annual gross income from farm operations varying between $44 million and $65 million, and an annual net income from their farms in the region of $25 million.

Field crops account for about $25 million worth of the annual agricultural production. Dairy farmers produce about 425 million pounds of milk a year. Hens in the Province lay about 14 million dozen eggs. The Annapolis Valley produces between 100 million and 250 million pounds of fruit annually.

Livestock is not raised, of course, on the scale of the larger provinces, but sheep production is exceptionally high, exceeding slightly that of British Columbia. The extent of the dairy industry can be estimated from the fact that there are more milk cows in Nova Scotia than in British Columbia in an average year, although the British Columbia beef cattle production normally exceeds that of Nova Scotia by a wide margin.

Nova Scotia is one of the four maple syrup producing provinces, and some honey is also made.

The Province's mineral production, most of it coal, has an annual value of about $60 million a year. A decade or two ago some gold was mined in Nova Scotia but production has declined almost to zero.

By a wide margin, Nova Scotia is Canada's largest gypsum producer. In a national production of about three and a half million tons, Nova Scotia accounts for about three million.

The marketed value of all products of the Nova Scotia fisheries ranges between $35 million and $40 million in an average year, an amount exceeded only in British Columbia. It represents the landing of about 375 million pounds of fish and lobsters—a little more than twice as many pounds as are landed in New Brunswick, a little more than half as many pounds as are landed in British Columbia.



Game Fish

The Province has by far the largest number of fish processing plants. In 1950, there were 208 out of a total of 597 for all Canada. New Brunswick had 170; Quebec, 94; British Columbia, 68; and Prince Edward Island, 57. Fisheries statistics for Newfoundland are only now becoming available on a comparative basis with those of the other provinces, but in 1951 the marketed value of the Newfoundland catch was estimated at two-thirds to three-quarters that of Nova Scotia although the poundage was possibly greater in Newfoundland.

In manufacturing, Nova Scotia's iron and steel industry occupies a predominant position. Two provinces, Ontario and Nova Scotia, make virtually all of Canada's

steel and pig iron. Nova Scotia produces about half a million tons of pig iron annually, and Ontario's production is about four times as great. The Nova Scotia iron and steel are made, of course, from ores brought from Newfoundland and smelted with Cape Breton Island coal. A large proportion of the pig iron is converted into steel at Sydney.

The annual gross value of all the products of Nova Scotian manufacture in a typical postwar year is about $250 million. Salaries and wages earned in Nova Scotia's manufacturing plants exceed $50 million annually.

The Province's industrial plants make food and beverage products, wood and paper products, transportation equipment, textiles and knitted goods, chemicals derived from coal and petroleum and a vast number of other articles.

Nor should the Province's shipbuilding industry be forgotten. Small wooden ships are still built for fishermen with all the skill that made the Nova Scotian wooden ships of an earlier day world-famous. But steel ships are also being built, not only for the fishermen whose trade is becoming more and more mechanized, but also for the Royal Canadian Navy.

Nova Scotia is extensively supplied with transportation facilities of all kinds. Every type of transportation is represented.

Transportation

Cape Breton Island and the northern and eastern districts of the peninsula are served by the Canadian National Railways. The CNR main line, entering from New Brunswick, is part of that railway's transcontinental trackage.

The Dominion Atlantic Railway, operated by the CPR, runs through the Annapolis Valley and thence to Halifax. It also has a line to Yarmouth. It, too, in a sense, is part of the transcontinental trackage of the Canadian Pacific. The CPR "Short Line" to the Atlantic seaboard runs across the State of Maine and then across New Brunswick. From Saint John, N.B., a Canadian Pacific steamship carries passengers and freight across the Bay of Fundy to connect with Dominion Atlantic trains at Digby, N.S.

Ferry services are important in a province nearly surrounded by water. In addition to the Digby-Saint John route, there is a ferry service from Caribou to Prince Edward Island and also several ferries covering shorter distances, for example, the one crossing Halifax Harbour to Dartmouth. Coastal steamers serve numerous harbours along the shoreline. Bus services utilize the excellent Nova Scotia highways to cover the entire Province.

From Halifax there are direct steamship lines to London, Liverpool, New York, Boston, Newfoundland,

the West Indies and South America. There are daily air services to Boston, Newfoundland and Montreal and also to local points within the Maritime Provinces.

More servicemen have probably seen Halifax than have visited any other Canadian city. The Army passed through it on the way to the First World War and returned again to its harbour after the victory was won. The Army and the Air Force went abroad and returned through its ancient harbour in the Second World War. Meanwhile, the Navy, both in wartime and in peacetime, knows Halifax as its most important Atlantic naval base. The Air Force has located one of its bases at Dartmouth, just across the Halifax harbour.

Halifax, in turn, has seen much of servicemen. The town was founded, not because it was a good site for a fur-trading post or had a stream which would turn the water wheel of a pioneer flour mill, as so many Canadian towns and cities began, but because it was a good location for a military and naval station. In 1749, Cornwallis needed a fine harbour and a strong naval and military establishment to match the power of the great French fortress on Cape Breton Island at Louisbourg. So he began the development of Halifax.

From 1749 to the present, the strategic importance of Halifax has played its role in Canadian and North American history and also in the history of sea power.

The Harbour

The harbour is possibly the finest—from some points of view at least—on the Atlantic coast of North America. Its special characteristics were assets during the Second World War when Bedford Basin, the inner part of the harbour, was a safe marshalling area for transatlantic convoys.

The harbour is a bay stretching inland from the ocean about fourteen miles. The entrance from the Atlantic is partially blocked by two islands, a very helpful factor in harbour defence. Behind McNab Island, the bay narrows to about a mile in width and its side, for about six miles, is lined with docks and piers. After a further constriction, the bay then opens up into the inner harbour of Bedford Basin. The Basin is about two and a half miles wide and four miles long.

Halifax itself is built on a sort of humped peninsula in the harbour. To the east, just across the narrow part, the town of Dartmouth has grown up.

As a commercial port, Halifax does not normally handle as great a volume of shipping as Montreal or Vancouver. In ordinary years there are between three and a half and four million tons of inbound and outbound cargo a year. This compares with about 15 million tons for Montreal and 11 million tons for Vancouver. But in wartime, the Halifax volume rises to a staggering total.

The dominant hump of the little peninsula upon which Halifax stands is Citadel Hill, where the old fortifications look down over the harbour and the business district of the city. Halifax is steeped in history and looks the part. Among the notable buildings are the Province House, where the Nova Scotia Legislature meets. Provincial Government departments have their offices in the Provincial Building. Just below Citadel Hill is the old town clock which has been keeping time for more than 140 years. St. Paul's Anglican Church, near the City Hall, was built in 1750.

On the harbour front, about three-quarters of a mile to the northeast of Citadel Hill, are the older ocean shipping piers. The huge new Ocean Terminals are about the same distance to the south of the hill. Near them are the Nova Scotian Hotel, the Union Station, a grain elevator and a cold storage plant.

Back from this transportation centre, the Northwest Arm of the harbour runs inland to form one shore of the little peninsula. It is a shoreline given over largely to recreation and education. Yacht clubs and other organizations devoted to aquatic sports have their clubhouses there. Dalhousie University, the University of King's College and the Nova Scotia Archives are nearby.

At the other side of the peninsula, near Bedford Basin, is a small hill crowned by Fort Needham. It over-



looks the part of Halifax which was devastated in the historic explosion of 1917, when a munitions ship blew up, killing 1,600 Haligonians and wrecking most of the northern end of the city.

Halifax is the chief wholesale distributing point for Nova Scotia. Along with Dartmouth, it also constitutes an industrial community of considerable importance. Altogether there are some 60 industries in Halifax itself, the chief of which are shipbuilding, the processing of fish, the refining of sugar, the preparation of various other foodstuffs and the manufacture of candy. There are large petroleum refineries in Dartmouth. Another of Dartmouth's principal industries is the manufacture of rope.

The population of the Halifax metropolitan area in the 1951 Census was 133,931, of whom 85,589 lived within the city limits, 15,037 lived in Dartmouth and the others in such neighbouring communities on both sides of the harbour as Armdale, Dartmouth Lakes, Cole Harbour, Herring Cove, Rockingham, Woodside and Imperoyal.

Approximately two-fifths of Nova Scotia's total population lives in two relatively small areas. A little more than a fifth is tightly grouped in Halifax and around Halifax harbour. A trifle less than a fifth lives in Sydney and the group of mining towns, Glace Bay, New Water-



Steel Rails at Sydney

ford, Sydney Mines, North Sydney and Dominion, all located within a radius of a few miles.

Sydney, with a population of 31,317 in the 1951 Census, is Nova Scotia's second largest city. The town of Glace Bay has a population of 25,500. New Waterford has slightly more than 10,000, Sydney Mines has 8,400, North Sydney 7,350 and Dominion about 3,000. But population is relatively dense outside the limits of the towns and so this group of communities more or less merges into one large scattered community with an over-all population, both urban and suburban, of about 120,000.

Coal mining and steel making is the fundamental activity of all these Cape Breton municipalities. The

steel is made at Sydney from iron ore mined at Bell Island in Newfoundland. The coal comes from mines in the other Cape Breton towns or on their outskirts, the biggest proportion of it from Glace Bay which has seven collieries and produces nearly 3 million tons annually. Although the shafts of the collieries are on dry land, the mines in some cases extend out under the sea bed as far as two and a half miles.

The steel plant at Sydney, one of the four steel-making establishments in Canada, covers an area of 460 acres. Among other units, it consists of three great blast furnaces, 180 coke ovens, twelve open hearth furnaces, a blooming mill, a bar mill, a rod mill and a wire and nail mill.

Sydney has an excellent harbour which is open throughout most of the year. With incoming cargo of iron ore and limestone for the steel mill and outgoing cargo of steel and coal for all parts of Eastern Canada, the volume of its shipping makes it a major seaport. During the short annual period when the Sydney harbour is icebound, Louisburg, to which there is a railway line, serves as a winter port.

In the very early days of settlement, Sydney harbour, then known as Spanish River, was used as a shore station by fishermen from Europe. Permanent settlement by English colonists dates from 1784 and in the following year Sydney was named as the capital of the

new colonial province of Cape Breton. Highland Scots began to arrive about 1802 and soon outnumbered all other colonists. They are still the predominant racial group.

Along the north shore of the peninsula of Nova Scotia are the towns of Pictou, Trenton, New Glasgow, Stellarton and Westville. New Glasgow, with a population of 10,000, is the largest of them. It is a wholesale centre and has several industries. There are coal mines at Stellarton and Westville. Trenton has a steel industry. Pictou is the port and county town of Pictou County. There are important mixed farming and dairying districts near Pictou and extensive salmon, smelts, mackerel, herring and lobster fisheries along most of the shoreline.

The fisheries extend along the north shore to Antigonish County where the university town of Antigonish, with a population of a little over 3,000, is internationally known as the centre of the "Antigonish Movement", originated by the extension department of St. Francis Xavier University.

Amherst, the county town of Cumberland County, is named after Lord Amherst who captured Louisbourg in 1758 and who later was appointed Governor General of British North America. It is at the head of Chignecto Bay in a prosperous agricultural and mining district. Amherst's population in the 1951 Census was 9,870.

Truro

Truro, with a population of about 11,000, on the Salmon River a short distance from the head of Cobequid Bay, is Nova Scotia's most centrally located town. Two suburban communities, Salmon River and Bible Hill, increase the over-all population to about 15,000. The Truro district was originally settled by Acadians. After they were expelled in 1755, the land was taken over by New England planters. The latter became the ancestors of many of Truro's present residents.

The town's industrial establishments include railway shops and yards, knitting mills, machine shops, grist mills and dairy products plants. It is the third ranking manufacturing centre of Nova Scotia, and one of the most important wholesale and distributing centres. It is also one of Nova Scotia's educational centres. The Provincial Normal College and the Nova Scotia Agricultural College are both located there.

The towns near the south shore of the Basin of Minas and down the length of the Annapolis Valley are steeped in history, education and the perfume of apple blossoms. The forest primeval with the murmuring pines and the hemlocks no longer stands but the events which inspired Longfellow's poem are commemorated by a statue of Evangeline at Grand Pré.

Down at the other end of the Valley is Annapolis Royal, the former Port Royal of Acadia, and oldest site of European settlement in Canada.



Commercial Fish

The past is commemorated at Annapolis Royal by the Fort Anne National Historic Park and the present and future are safeguarded at the nearby training establishment of the Royal Canadian Navy HMCS *Cornwallis*.

A few miles to the southeast is Digby, the main shipping centre of the district.

At the northern end of the Annapolis Valley are the towns of Kentville and Wolfville. The former is the headquarters of the apple-growing industry and is the site of an Experimental Station of the Federal Department of Agriculture. Wolfville is the location of Acadia University.

Yarmouth, on the western shore of Nova Scotia, is one of the Province's noted fishing ports. It is also the Canadian terminus of a steamship route to Boston. The town has a population of more than 8,000.

Wedgeport, a few miles from Yarmouth, is Canada's most famous location for big game fishing. The International Tuna Cup Match is held there annually.

On what the Nova Scotians call the South Shore, fishing and farming are the principal industries. Shelburne, Lockport and Liverpool are all fishing ports and Liverpool has a paper mill.

But the most famous fishing port of them all is Lunenburg, about 50 miles southwest of Halifax. It is a small town if you go by Census figures. There were fewer than 3,000 within the municipal boundaries in the 1951 Census. But for sailing ships and fishing its fame is international. It was the home port of the famous fishing and racing schooner, the *Bluenose*. So many fish are landed at Lunenburg annually that, except for Halifax, it is the dominant town in the industry. The district inland from Lunenburg was originally settled about 1753 by German farmers who, after a generation or two in the new land, began to develop into some of North America's most hardy fishermen and skilled shipbuilders.

Maps drawn by Geographic Branch, Department of Mines and Technical Surveys.
Photos courtesy of the Nova Scotia Bureau of Information.

HOW TO USE THIS PAMPHLET

NOVA SCOTIA

This is Article No. 8 in the CITIZENSHIP SERIES of CURRENT AFFAIRS pamphlets.

Read this pamphlet carefully, make notes and follow a definite plan in presenting your material in the Discussion Hour.

The headings in the pamphlet are arranged so that you can present your material in an orderly manner.

Place-names can be found on the accompanying map which should be referred to frequently so as to familiarize the group with the geography of the Province.

The following questions are suggested for discussion at the end of the presentation of your material:

1. Discuss the geography and climate of Nova Scotia.
2. Why were so many battles fought on Nova Scotian soil and the adjacent seas during the wars between the English and the French?
3. What are Nova Scotia's contributions to a distinctive Canadian culture?
4. How do Nova Scotians get their living?
5. What is the importance to Canada of the port of Halifax?

Do not forget to make a summary of the discussion in the last five minutes of the hour.

EDMOND CLOUTIER, C.M.G., O.A., D.S.P.
QUEEN'S PRINTER AND CONTROLLER OF STATIONERY, OTTAWA, 1954


CANADA

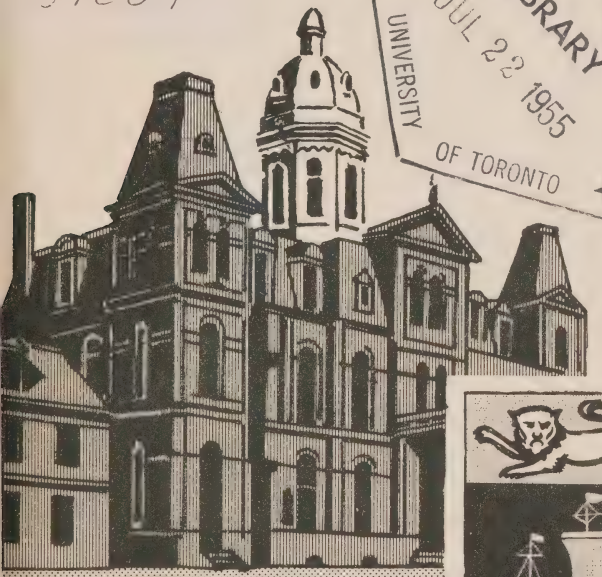
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Citizenship

No. 9

FOR THE CANADIAN FORCES

The ninth of a series of pamphlets on Canadian Citizenship, prepared especially for the Armed Forces by the Bureau of Current Affairs.

The Province of New Brunswick

No. 9

BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, CANADA

Introduction

In a foreword to the first of the regular series of *Current Affairs* pamphlets issued in October, 1951, the Minister of National Defence stated that service personnel "should know as much as possible about Canada . . .".

Accordingly, the Bureau of Current Affairs has initiated a series of citizenship pamphlets. In this series five have been published to date dealing with the following topics:—

The Canadian Constitution
How Parliament Works
Local Government
The Serviceman and His Vote
The Public Service of Canada.

We are now issuing citizenship pamphlets which tell about the ten provinces of Canada and Yukon and the Northwest Territories. This material will supplement the first five pamphlets.

We sincerely hope that service personnel will obtain a broader understanding and deeper appreciation of their country from a study and discussion of this material.

HARRY R. LOW
Director, Bureau of Current Affairs

The Province of New Brunswick

Ever since 1855, when immigration into New Brunswick began to decline, the descendants of the original Acadian settlers have increased in numbers more rapidly than their English-speaking fellow New Brunswickers. One-fifth of the million French Canadians who live outside the Province of Quebec have their homes in New Brunswick. The 1951 Census showed more than half a million people resident in the Province. Of these, nearly three hundred thousand claim British origins, almost two hundred thousand call themselves Acadians.

Each group has behind it generations of history and tradition. Violence and tragedy stain some of the early pages of their story. But as New Brunswickers they are building together, in healthy rivalry and growing mutual respect, a prosperous and colourful civilization which is essentially modern and typically Canadian.

New Brunswick may claim with some justification that the first French settlement in North America was

established on the soil of the Province. In the summer of 1604, Samuel de Champlain, a distinguished naval officer and explorer who bore the title of Royal Geographer of France, and the Sieur de Monts, who held from Henri IV the patent of King's Lieutenant in Acadia, laid out a substantial little colony on Ile St. Croix in the river to which they had given the same name.

Dwellings, a mill, a storehouse and barracks were erected, cannon were planted for defence and 79 people settled down to found a community. Ile St. Croix, where the buildings were, is now known as Dochet Island. It lies in the St. Croix River about ten miles upstream from St. Andrews and is today on the United States side of the boundary which separates New Brunswick from the State of Maine. But the colonists laid out gardens on the eastern shore, beside a small stream which empties into the St. Croix southeast of Sandy Point, and the site of those gardens is in New Brunswick.

A strange and fatal disease, probably scurvy, struck the colonists during the winter. Twenty-five of them died. In the following year the entire settlement, buildings and all, was transported to Port Royal (now Annapolis Royal) across the Bay of Fundy in Nova Scotia.

Thus Nova Scotia became the centre of gravity of Acadia, New Brunswick remained a backwater for generations and New England was left to be settled by the English fourteen years later.

From the very first days there was friendship between the Acadians and the Micmacs and Malicites, who inhabited New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. Both tribes dreaded the Mohawks, among whom the New Englanders would settle, and this feud would account for much savagery and bloodshed on both sides during years of relentless struggle between French and English for control of Acadia.

The struggle was not long in beginning. Captain Samuel Argall was sent, in 1613, from the new English colony of Jamestown, in Virginia, to ravage the tiny French settlements and he did so. The survivors took to the woods and the Acadians were to suffer a long period of neglect while the attention of France was concentrated on the new settlement which Champlain founded in 1608 at Quebec. During their hard years of wandering they lived among the Indians, traded with them and established little fur and fishing posts and missions, chiefly on the New Brunswick mainland.

King James I of England was persuaded in 1621, the year after the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth, to colonize Acadia. Sir William Alexander, a patriotic Scot who was also a man of letters and a suave courtier, talked the King into creating Nova Scotia. In America at this time there were already a New England, a New France, a New Spain, a New Portugal and, in the neighbourhood of Albany, the beginnings of a New Netherlands. James

had been King of England for 18 years, but he had been King of Scotland for more than half a century and he was quite ready to turn Acadia into a New Scotland, even though his mother had been Queen of France and Acadia was claimed by the French.

Alexander meant business. The St. John River became the Clyde and the St. Croix, which divided New England from New Scotland, was named the Tweed. The colony was divided into 150 baronetcies, and 34 of them were to be in New Brunswick. But 10 years later James' son, Charles I, seeking the favour of France, ordered the colony removed and France became sovereign once more in Acadia. Some of the Scots left of their own free will, others were deported by the French and a few, who had intermarried with the Acadians, remained behind. This little group of mixed French and Scottish folk, and sixty families from France who came between 1632 and 1637, are the ancestors of the 200,000 Acadians of today.

Nobody has ever known how many individuals survived these early catastrophes and made nomadic homes for themselves in the forests of New Brunswick. It is more than likely that the blood of some of the St. Croix colonists still runs in the veins of Acadians, making them easily the oldest white Canadian families.

Acadia changed hands many times in the course of a century and a half. The lilies of France and the crosses of St. Andrew and St. George alternated rapidly on the fortresses of the colony, when any fortresses were left standing. Massacres, tortures and deportations, fierce raids in which white woodsmen and their Indian allies wiped out English settlements as well as French and did not always trouble to carry off survivors, smeared the history of Acadia, Maine, Massachusetts and Newfoundland with blood and ashes.

The names of Shirley of Massachusetts, Lawrence of Halifax and Winslow of Fort Beauséjour live in infamy because Longfellow, in his great poem *Evangeline,* has celebrated the most cold-blooded outrage of them all. But 67 years before the *Great Expulsion* every settlement in Maine, except Wells, York, Kittery and the Isle of Shoals was overrun and 1,000 white people were killed or kidnapped and Benjamin Church was sent with 500 men into Acadia to retaliate. While these things were happening in Acadia and New England, Pierre le Moyne, Sieur d'Iberville, one of the greatest figures in the story of New France, captured Fort Pemaquid then swooped down upon Newfoundland and ravaged the English settlements on the coast. Acadian seigneurs fought each other as bitterly as they fought the English, sacking one another's forts, hanging the garrisons, ruining the settlers and marrying the widows.



Fort Beauséjour

Wars were not fought with kid gloves in those days, and the memories of old atrocities and hatreds have died hard in history, in folklore, in family traditions handed down from generation to generation, and in politics.

Acadia was ceded formally to Britain in 1713, at the end of the War of the Spanish Succession; Halifax was founded in 1749 and government of a scattered French-speaking population was vested in an English garrison and public officials. Boundaries were vague, however; nobody agreed upon the area of Acadia, no serious effort was made to induce English - speaking people to settle in the Province and there was no attempt at British occupation north of the Bay of Fundy.

During the half-century between 1713 and 1763, the year when Canada was finally ceded to Britain, the French population of what is now New Brunswick grew rapidly. At the sorrowful period of the Expulsion there were 3,000 of them. Nearly half were deported at various periods, but considerable numbers remained and they were joined from time to time by returning exiles.

English occupation of the mainland of Acadia began the year before Quebec fell, when Brigadier-General Monckton landed at the mouth of the River St. John with 2,000 troops, took possession of the old French fort, then destroyed the French settlements on the St. John and Petitcodiac Rivers.

Between the cession of Canada and the War of Independence in the United States, there was slow but steady English settlement. In 1766 a census showed about 1,200 English-speaking people at Maugerville, Sackville and Chignecto, at the mouth of the River St. John, at Passamaquoddy and Miramichi, along the Petitcodiac River and in the townships on the St. John.

On the eve of the Revolution south of the border, the English-speaking population was a little more than 2,500 and there were about 1,500 Acadians. The people were scattered and life was very primitive. There were few religious or educational facilities.

The Loyalists

The real founders of the New Brunswick of today were the United Empire Loyalists. Among them were members of old, historic North American families which had played important parts in their native New York and New Jersey. Of people like them, an American authority has written: "The side of the Loyalists in the Revolutionary contest was even in argument not a weak one, and in motive and sentiment not a base one, and in devotion and self-sacrifice not an unheroic one." More than 200 Harvard graduates were among the banished Loyalists. They brought with them few of their possessions, but they were strong-willed, vigorous people and the Province of New Brunswick was moulded to fit their ideas.

The vanguard of 10,000 Loyalists who settled on the St. John River came early in 1782, arriving at Fort Howe in May. There were 3,000, of all ages and conditions, in the first group. Two other fleets came that year, one in June with 2,000 passengers, another in September with 3,000. Other exiles came in single ships at intervals.

Within two years the Loyalists had become a settled community. The provincial government at Halifax was too far away to administer their affairs. Led by Edward Winslow, they agitated for the creation of a province of their own.

On May 29, 1784, it was announced that the old Province of Nova Scotia would be divided at the Isthmus of Chignecto and a new province north of the Bay of Fundy would be called New Brunswick. Colonel Thomas Carleton, Sir Guy Carleton's younger brother, was the first Governor. In 1785 he fixed upon St. Ann's Point, on the St. John River, 84 miles from its mouth, as the future seat of government, and he renamed it Fredericktown in honour of the Duke of York. In the same year, the independently-minded Governor granted a charter to Saint John without consulting the British authorities, thus making it the first incorporated city in the British colonies. His charter remained in force for more than a century.

New Brunswick developed fast in the first twenty years of its history. Shipbuilding flourished. Lumber-mills were to be found in every county. Fish were exported to the West Indies in exchange for molasses and rum. Wheat, rye, potatoes and corn were grown in abundance. The farmers raised cattle, sheep and swine.

The Province was scarcely disturbed by the War of 1812, which stimulated rather than checked its prosperity. There was no fighting along the border, but in February, 1813, the New Brunswick Regiment was ordered to Canada and its mid-winter march to Quebec is still considered one of the most remarkable military



Site of Fort Howe

movements on record. One thousand men covered a distance of three hundred miles on snowshoes in thirteen days.

After the Napoleonic Wars, immigration from overseas began in earnest, as it did in Nova Scotia and in Ontario. It continued for 40 years, reaching its culmination in the forties when between 6,000 and 8,000 new people poured in every year. At least 100,000 arrived in New Brunswick in the fifteen years ending with 1848. Many moved on to the United States, but a great many remained behind. Some went into the wilderness, others joined with older inhabitants to open

new communities, the majority established themselves in existing cities and towns. They came from England, Scotland and Ireland and they strengthened the Province.

But their coming marked the peak of Anglo-Saxon dominance in New Brunswick. The decline of immigration, which began in 1855, was followed by a westward movement of English-speaking New Brunswickers into Canada which soon became great enough to check the growth of the Province. If the population has not fallen off since Confederation, it has been due to the Acadians, who have clung stubbornly to their native soil.

The border with the State of Maine was settled by the Ashburton Treaty in 1842. Railways and roads were built. Institutions of government evolved, as they were evolving in other British provinces in North America. The Civil War in the United States stimulated business as the War of 1812 had done.

But the event which overshadowed every other in the history of the Province was the coming of Confederation. New Brunswick entered Canada with reluctance. It happened that the ten years before Confederation were the most prosperous in all New Brunswick history. Since then, until new resources were discovered recently and plans were made to develop more water-power in the Province, New Brunswickers have often been critical of Confederation.



St. John River Valley

Now, with Canada a sovereign state and great international issues injected into the political life of the country, and with new economic horizons opening before its people, sectionalism is dying down and New Brunswick is looking to the future with new zest and energy. In their planning for the developments ahead, the descendants of the Acadians of old, having strengthened themselves educationally and economically as well as numerically in the last four generations, will share with the sons of the Loyalists and of the "later comers" of a century ago, on more equal terms, the new level of prosperity to which New Brunswick looks.

The Provincial Government of New Brunswick consists of the Lieutenant-Governor, the Executive Council or Cabinet and a Legislative Assembly of 52 seats. The Cabinet is composed at the present time of the Premier and ten other ministers.

The departments of the Government are as follows: Provincial Secretary-Treasurer; Attorney General; Public Works; Lands and Mines; Education; Municipal Affairs; Agriculture; Health and Social Services; Labour; and Industry and Development. One of the ministers is chairman of the New Brunswick Electric Power Commission.

With much of New Brunswick's wealth having its source in the forests, the forestry services provided by the Department of Lands and Mines are extensive. A large proportion of the senior officials of that department are directly engaged in forestry work.

The Department of Health and Social Services has District Medical Health Officers stationed throughout the Province, maintains laboratories for bacteriological and other tests, and directs the administration of three hospitals owned by the Province. One of the hospitals is for mental patients and the other two are tuberculosis sanatoria. A long list of general hospitals receive grants from provincial funds.

The Courts

The Supreme Court of New Brunswick has three Divisions. The Appeal Division consists of the Chief Justice of the Province and two puisne judges. The same three judges also constitute the Chancery Division. The trials section, known as the Queen's Bench Division of the Supreme Court, has its own Chief Justice and three other judges. There is, in addition, a Court of Divorce and Matrimonial Causes.

The Province has a system of County Courts in which the judges usually have jurisdiction in two or more counties. There are juvenile courts in Saint John and Fredericton and in two or three of the counties. Magistrates' Courts are located in the cities and in most of the towns of the Province.

In common with the other Maritime Provinces, New Brunswick is well known for its interest in education. The standards in elementary and secondary education are much the same as those in Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island. The three mainland provinces and Newfoundland have a joint arrangement for the setting and marking of examination papers.

In the post-war years, without greatly changing the basic curriculum, New Brunswick has undertaken an extensive program of school improvement. The purpose of the program could be briefly described as that of giving every child in the Province the equivalent of the facilities of the best city schools.

Rural elementary schools are being provided with all the types of equipment possessed by town schools, and intensive efforts are being made to speed up the training of teachers. At the high school level, some 40 or 50 large and completely modern district schools will take the place of more than 1,200 rural school districts. These new schools are being located throughout the Province in such a way that all children can attend them by means of school buses.

Teacher training is carried on at the New Brunswick Teachers' College at Fredericton and at St. Joseph's University.

New Brunswick shares with Nova Scotia some of the task of providing higher education for the people of all the Atlantic Provinces. In New Brunswick the university enrolment is drawn to the extent of about 30 per cent from outside the provincial boundaries.

The University of New Brunswick, in Fredericton, with an enrolment of 745 students, is provincially supported. It is a lineal descendant of a college which was founded in that city in 1800.

Mount Allison University, in Sackville, founded as a Wesleyan college in 1840, is one of the three Arts colleges of the United Church of Canada. It has approximately as numerous a student body as the University of New Brunswick.

The Universities

The other degree-granting institutions are colleges and universities of the Roman Catholic Church. The largest, with an enrolment of 250, is St. Joseph's University in Moncton and at College Bridge near Memramcook. It is bilingual. Instruction is in English at St. Thomas College in Chatham, where there are about 75 students. Classes are conducted in French at the Université du Sacré-Cœur in Bathurst and at the Université de Saint-Louis in Edmundston. The former has 90 undergraduates and the latter about 150. Courses in subjects at university level are given to women students at the Collège Notre-Dame d'Acadie in Moncton and at the Collège Maillet in St. Basile, the former affiliated with St. Joseph's, the latter affiliated with Saint-Louis.

The University of New Brunswick offers courses in Arts, Sciences, Forestry and Engineering. It has a law faculty located in Saint John.

In addition to courses in Arts, Science and Engineering, Mount Allison has a Conservatory of Music, a School of Fine and Applied Arts and a School of Home Economics.

New Brunswick, with an area of 27,985 square miles, is the largest of the Canadian Atlantic Provinces excepting Newfoundland. Its shape on a map is roughly that of a rectangle, with a width from east to west of 190 miles and a length from north to south of 230 miles.



Handicrafts Flourish

The boundaries of New Brunswick are the Bay of Chaleur and the Province of Quebec on the north, the State of Maine on the west, the Bay of Fundy, Chignecto Bay and a few miles of Nova Scotia on the south, and Northumberland Strait and the Gulf of St. Lawrence on the east.

By contrast with Nova Scotia, where there are numerous streams but no large rivers, New Brunswick is a land of widely-known rivers.

The Tidal Bore

The Restigouche, which forms part of the boundary with Quebec, is the most famous salmon river in the angling world. It flows into the Gulf of St. Lawrence by way of Chaleur Bay. A hundred miles to the south is the Miramichi, which also flows into the Gulf.

The St. John River, which is 450 miles long and drains a river basin in Maine and New Brunswick of some 21,500 square miles, is the largest river on the Canadian Atlantic Coast except for the St. Lawrence and some of the rivers in Labrador and Ungava. The mouth of the river at the Bay of Fundy is noted for its "reversing falls", a great tourist attraction.

Another river, long remembered by tourists, is the Petitcodiac, which empties into the Chignecto arm of Fundy. Twice each day the Tidal Bore, a wall of water, four to six feet high, rushes up this river through the City of Moncton, which is about 20 miles from the river mouth.

Most of New Brunswick is what the geographers call a lowland. But it is by no means a level, monotonous plain. Rather, it is rolling country, well forested, and broken by lakes and winding rivers. Except in two districts, one of them along Chignecto Bay and the Bay of Fundy, the other in the northwest, not a great deal of the Province rises in any place to more than 500 feet above the sea.

The northwestern region is very rough in places and could be called mountainous. The highest peak—incidentally it is the highest in the Maritime Provinces—is Mount Carleton which rises to 2,700 feet.

There are two types of terrain in this rougher, higher region. Alongside the borders of Quebec and Maine—indeed extending across both borders—is the Northwestern Plateau. It is at a general level of 1,000 to 1,500 feet above the sea. Below the soil covering, the rocky structure consists of folds of slaty rocks of the Devonian geological period containing lime. To the east of this plateau, south of the point where the Matapedia River empties into Chaleur Bay, are the Central Highlands, where the average height of the land is about 2,000 feet above the sea and where numerous ancient, worn-down mountains, among them Mount Carleton, rise 300, 500 and 700 feet higher. Much of the underlying rock in this region is Devonian granite.

The uplands along the Bay of Fundy and Chignecto Bay appear as a series of small groups of hills and ridges. East of the St. John River, along the Bay of Fundy are the Caledonia Hills and the Kent Hills which rise to about 1,400 feet. More or less parallel to the Kennebecasis River and north of it is the long low ridge of the Kingston Hills. The Belle Isle Ridge is a few miles north of the Kingston Hills.



Farm near Richibucto

West of the St. John River there is a district where the general elevation is about 500 feet but groups of hills rise higher. Mount Champlain in the Nerepis Hills rises to 1,462 feet.

Geologically, the hills and ridges in the Southern Uplands of New Brunswick in many cases have a Precambrian structure. Surrounding or adjoining some of the Precambrian outcroppings are oil and gas-bearing rocks in a few regions. There are some oil and gas wells at Stoney Creek south of Moncton, but their output is not very great.

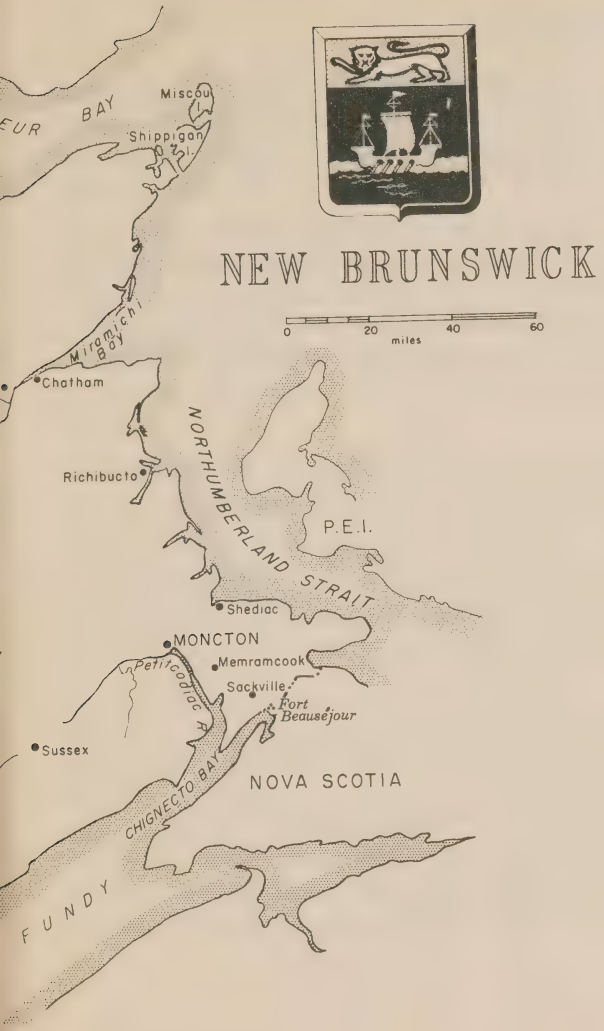
Although less well supplied with coal than Nova Scotia, the Province of New Brunswick nevertheless has one extensive deposit. Within a few miles of the northwestern shore of Grand Lake there is an area of more than 100 square miles underlain with a flat pancake of coal ranging in thickness from 18 to 30 inches. In some cases the coal is close enough to the surface to be worked by strip-mining; in others it is brought up from mines that are about 125 feet deep. There are gypsum deposits in the Hillsborough region south of Moncton. Some manganese is also found in this district.

New Brunswick is bounded by water on two sides and part of a third, but its coastline of 600 miles is only a fraction of the length of the Nova Scotia coastline. The difference is partly the result of the extremely large number of comparatively small bays and inlets alternating with heads, points and peninsulas on the south coast of Nova Scotia.

The New Brunswick shoreline certainly is no smooth, straight line, and there are plenty of good harbours along it; but generally speaking it has only a fraction of the numbers of twists and turns found along the Nova Scotia shore.

An even more striking difference between the two neighbouring Maritime Provinces is in their respective climates. Both Nova Scotia and New Brunswick have


QUEBEC
Dalhousie
Campbellton
Upsalquitch R.
Restigouche River
EDMUNDSTON
Nipisiguit
Grand Falls
Tobique River
Miramichi
MAINE
St. John River
Hartland
Woodstock
FREDERICTON
McAdam
St. Croix R.
St. Stephen
St. Andrews
Black's Harbour
Campobello Island
Grand Manan
B A
Geographical Branch, Dept. of M. & T.S. 1954


NEW BRUNSWICK
0
20
40
60
miles
EUR BAY
Miscou
Shippigan I.
Miramichi Bay
Chatham
Richibucto
NORTHUMBERLAND STRAIT
P.E.I.
Shediac
MONCTON
Memramcook
Petitcodiac R.
Sackville
Fort Beauséjour
Sussex
CHIGNECTO BAY
NOVA SCOTIA
FUNDY

climates which are, of course, influenced by proximity to large areas of salt water. But the influence on Nova Scotia is great, giving that province a distinctly maritime climate, while the influence upon New Brunswick is slight.

Since most of the "weather" of North America moves from west to east, the storm centres that cross New Brunswick are those that have previously crossed parts of Quebec and Ontario or the northern parts of the United States. Only in the districts immediately adjacent to the coastline is there much marine influence on the New Brunswick climate.

As a consequence, throughout most of New Brunswick, the winters are usually colder and clearer and the summers warmer and less humid than in Nova Scotia. Snowfall in the interior is fairly heavy and the snow stays on the ground longer, a fact that is of importance to the lumber industry. There is always enough snow for good winter roads for logging operations.

New Brunswick is served by the transcontinental lines of both the Canadian National Railways and the Canadian Pacific Railway. The C.P.R. main line enters the southwestern corner of the Province after crossing the State of Maine. From McAdam, a town of comparatively small size but important as a railway centre, the main line runs to Saint John. There is a short branch line to Fredericton. Other branch lines run south from

McAdam to St. Andrews and St. Stephen and also north, through the St. John River valley, to Edmundston. Generally speaking, the C.P.R. serves the western half of the Province, the C.N.R. the eastern half.

The main line of the C.N.R. enters from the Province of Quebec, parallels the shoreline of Chaleur Bay to Nipisiguit Bay, then runs in a southeasterly direction across country to Moncton. Thence it runs to Sackville and on into Nova Scotia. Other lines radiate from Moncton to Saint John and to the northwestern part of the Province.

The two Canadian railways have connections with American railways which make rail travel easy to all parts of the New England States.

Air transport developed rapidly in New Brunswick during the years of the Second World War and Moncton became an important centre both for the RCAF and for Trans-Canada Airlines. In those days the Moncton airport bore a relationship to Goose Bay that resembled, on a minor scale, the relationship of the Edmonton airport to Whitehorse and to the North-West Staging Route.

Moncton is still an important stop on the TCA transcontinental line. Additionally its airport facilities are used in the rather extensive air traffic network that has been developed in the Maritimes since the war.

Communications

The Province has more than 1,000 miles of paved highways and about 11,000 miles of good gravel roads. The paving of highways is being steadily extended.

Telegraph and telephone communications are well developed in New Brunswick, mostly by commercial companies, but partly also through Canadian Government lines to scattered settlements and cables to various islands, for example, Campobello and Grand Manan in the Bay of Fundy.

On an international basis, New Brunswick is the locale of one of Canada's most significant communications centres. The transmitters of the CBC International Service are located on the salt marshes near Sackville. The characteristics of this site give their signals a stronger reception in Europe than those of any other North American short-wave transmitters of comparable power.

Forest industries are a bigger factor in the economy of New Brunswick than any other form of production. Pulp and paper has an annual gross value of $85 million to $90 million. Sawn lumber has a value of about $17 million. Other lumber and wood products — shingles, flooring, veneers and plywoods, lath, staves, sash and doors and furniture — are worth another $17 million. The aggregate gross value of production from all wood cutting and subsequent operations is well in excess of

$100 million annually, even after subtracting instances of duplication when one stage of wood processing produces the raw material for a still more finished state.

On the pulp and paper side of the industry there are seven mills in New Brunswick, all of them making pulp but only three of them making paper. The paper mills are at Bathurst, Dalhousie and Edmunston. The other four pulp mills are at Atholville, Lancaster Vale, Newcastle and St. George. The seven mills employ about 3,700 people and have aggregate annual payrolls of some $15 million.

Lumber is sawn by more than 400 sawmills. There are about 4,000 employees in this branch of the industry. They receive about $4 million in salaries and wages.

Such wood products as plywoods, furniture, sash and doors and hardwood flooring are made in 115 other factories which have an aggregate payroll of $3 million.

In proportion to area, New Brunswick has more standing merchantable timber than any other Canadian province. Quebec, Ontario, British Columbia and Alberta all have bigger total timber reserves, but in each of these only a relatively small percentage of the provincial area is genuine timber land. In New Brunswick the forests cover 77 per cent of the total provincial area. This works out to roughly 14 million acres, about half of which is crown land and the other half privately owned.



A Pulp and Paper Mill

On this area there are nearly nine billion cubic feet of timber, or more than twice the amount in the other three Atlantic Provinces combined.

Alberta has about eleven billion cubic feet in her forests, as against New Brunswick's nine million, but the forest industries are more highly developed in New Brunswick with the result that the latter province stands next to British Columbia, Quebec and Ontario in production.

Next to the forests as a source of wealth in New Brunswick come the farms. More people are employed in agriculture than in the forest industries, although their total production has not as great a dollar value. Aggregate employment in the pulp and paper mills, the sawmills, the various wood-working factories and in cutting in the woods themselves is about 20,000. Accurate em-

ployment figures for the farms are hard to arrive at. However, 145,771 people, men, women and children, live on New Brunswick farms according to the 1951 Census, and that would mean an active employment figure of more than 30,000. There are 26,431 farms with an aggregate area of 3,470,000 acres.

The outstanding crop is potatoes. The potato farms, many of them located in the St. John River district of eastern New Brunswick, grow about 17 million hundredweight annually, a quantity unequalled in any other province except Quebec and Ontario. This is more than the potato production of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta and British Columbia combined.

Other field crops include oats, barley, wheat and buckwheat. Livestock and poultry raising probably rank next to potato growing as a major agricultural activity. Dairying is important and New Brunswick has a larger population of milk cows than any other of the Atlantic Provinces.

Fruit growing has become increasingly important in recent years. The best districts are in the St. John River Valley and Westmoreland County, in the southeastern corner of the Province. The quantity of fruit produced is not enough to make fruit growing the predominant interest it is in the Annapolis Valley of Nova Scotia or the Okanagan Valley of British Columbia, but the quality



Mechanized Potato-digging

is good and some of the orchards are on a large enough scale to require the full-time attention of their owners. Others are managed on a part-time basis as one of the aspects of mixed farming.

A characteristic of rural life in New Brunswick, as in the other Atlantic Provinces, is that the farmer, especially in coastal districts, is often a part-time fisherman. In other districts, he is often a part-time lumberman. Sometimes he is a combination of all three, farmer, fisherman, lumberman. The seasonal characteristics of the three types of work lend themselves to consecutive employment and a considerable proportion of New Bruns-

wick men take advantage of this fact in order to obtain a better living for their families.

New Brunswick is not at present one of the major mining provinces of Canada. The total production of the Province's mines has in recent years been worth only a little over $10 million annually. But a tremendous mining future is predicted for it, and it does have a long mining history.

The first coal ever exported from North America came from the Minto field in the Grand Lake district of south-central New Brunswick. This coal seam is still



A New Mine near Bathurst

being worked, with a yearly production of about 650,000 tons, 90 per cent of which is used by railways and industry within the Province.

In 1953, lead, zinc, silver, copper, tin and manganese discoveries were made in the Bathurst district of northern New Brunswick. So promising are the ore bodies, so suitable are some of them for economical strip mining, and so close are they to transportation that responsible geologists and economists have been suggesting that New Brunswick will join Quebec, Ontario and British Columbia as a major producer of base metals.

Other commercial minerals are gypsum, diatomite, building and monumental granites, natural gas and petroleum. Gypsum is mined in the Hillsborough district and is manufactured into wallboard and plaster. Recently a cement plant with a capacity of 800,000 barrels a year was built at Havelock, and for the first time cement is now being made in the Maritime Provinces. New Brunswick has numerous natural gas and oil wells in the southeastern part of the Province but production is not great and has been declining.

Great as may be the future underground wealth of the land, the undersurface wealth of the sea around so much of the Province is of greater current importance.

More than a dozen species of sea food are caught commercially by New Brunswick fishermen. Among the varieties are cod, haddock, hake, herring, sardines, smelts, mackerel, Atlantic salmon, pollock, shad, scallops, lobsters and oysters.

The New Brunswick fisheries employ nearly 15,000 persons whose catch has a marketed value of nearly $20 million annually. The fishing industry has a capital investment of more than $8 million, an amount that is increasing rapidly because of changes to more expensive and more efficient fishing equipment and expansion of modern processing facilities, especially those for the quick freezing of filleted fish.

New Brunswick fishermen have access, of course, to the various "banks" of the continental shelf that are fished by Newfoundland and Nova Scotia fishermen, but they also have some excellent locations much closer to their own shores in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Much of the "bank" fishing in the Maritimes is now done by trawlers and draggers.

New Brunswick's special contribution to the modernization of fishing methods is a small variety of dragger with capacity for a catch of about 60,000 pounds of fish. In Nova Scotia, where much of the fishing is done over "banks" in the open Atlantic, a larger dragger, able to stay out in almost any weather until it has filled its



Fishing Dragger

capacity of 125,000 pounds, is commonly used. But the smaller draggers are excellent for Gulf and Bay of Chaleur fishing.

In addition to these more mechanized methods of fishing, the ancient method of using baited handlines within a short distance of shore is still practised.

Nova Scotia exceeds New Brunswick in the catch of lobsters and several types of fish, but New Brunswick takes first place for all of Canada in the production of sardines. The largest sardine cannery in the world is at Black's Harbour. Fish processing, packing, curing and canning, ranks as New Brunswick's third most important manufacturing activity.

The fishing industry in the Maritimes as a whole has the benefit of the studies carried out at the research



Nets at Shippigan

and experimental stations of the Fisheries Research Board of Canada. One of the most important of these is the Biological Station in St. Andrews. It correlates its work with that of a branch in Prince Edward Island and with another main fisheries research centre in Halifax.

Although the commerical fisheries are under federal jurisdiction for such matters as seasonal regulations and conservation measures, and while they receive marked support from the federal authority in extensive research

leading to improved methods of fishing, processing and marketing, they are not without assistance from the provincial Government. In 1945, a Fisheries Division was organized within the provincial Department of Industry and Reconstruction. The following year, a Fishermen's Loan Board was set up to help fishermen purchase new boats and motors. It was largely with financing provided by this Board that the fleet of small draggers was acquired by the Bay of Chaleur fishermen.

No description of New Brunswick fishing is ever complete without mention of the non-commercial fishing on the famous salmon streams of the Province. From the viewpoint of the fisherman, this is sport and recreation pure and simple. From the Province's point of view it has a commercial aspect. New Brunswick's salmon streams are among the most famous in existence. Fishing rights along the streams are leased at auction by the Province to clubs or groups of fishermen or in some cases to wealthy individuals; and revenues obtained are by no means a negligible item in the provincial budget.

The chief manufactured products of New Brunswick are, of course, pulp and paper. Other wood products rank in second place, although closely followed by canned or otherwise processed fisheries products.

Food products as a group, including processed fish as well as packed meats, butter and cheese, biscuits and

confectionery and other baked goods, comprise a very considerable proportion of New Brunswick's manufacturing output.

Since the end of the Second World War, the number of small wood-working plants in the Province has shown a marked increase. Among the specialized wood products are bowling pins, hockey sticks and canoes.

Long-established industries include the sugar refineries at Saint John, textile plants at Saint John, Marysville and St. Stephen, tanneries at Woodstock, shoe factories at Woodstock, and foundries at Sackville.

The Province is well supplied with hydro-electric power and there are sites available for future hydro-electric developments if industry expands. So far, all the hydro-electric power has been produced by conventional installations at waterfalls or dams on rivers, but for generations Maritimers have held before themselves the prospect of huge amounts of electric power through "harnessing" the tides of the Bay of Fundy. Passamaquoddy Bay is the site most generally mentioned for such a project. The development there, if it is ever carried out, is likely to be a joint international project between the Province of New Brunswick and the State of Maine or between the United States Government and the Canadian Government.

Fredericton

The cities of New Brunswick have strikingly different individual characteristics.

Saint John is a great seaport. It is a major industrial centre. It is the Province's largest community (50,779) by a wide margin. But it is not the capital. That honour rests with Fredericton, (16,018). Nor is Saint John the chief transportation centre, except for ocean shipping. Moncton (27,334) is the focal point for a large share of New Brunswick's activities in transportation and distribution.

The site of Fredericton on the St. John River about 85 miles upstream from the Bay of Fundy was, during the French régime in the Maritimes, the location of the village of Ste. Anne. In the autumn of 1783, the region was settled by Loyalists from the United States. The following year, when the new province of New Brunswick was established, Fredericton's central location made it a logical choice for the capital. Two years later, the Governor of the Province established residence there. It was incorporated as a city in 1848.

Most of Fredericton is on the south bank of the river. Indeed, it was only recently that suburban areas on the north bank were officially taken into the municipality. The two sections of the city are connected by a highway bridge across the St. John.



Elm-shaded Fredericton

The city was carefully planned and well laid-out generations ago. Tremendous elms line its residential streets. From the air, it looks like a forest. It is a cathedral city, a university town and a provincial capital, all combined.

With the Legislative Buildings, the University of New Brunswick and the cathedral, Fredericton has as notable a group of public buildings as any city of its size in Canada.

Old as Fredericton is, the honours of age go to Saint John, the oldest incorporated city in Canada. By Royal Charter, Saint John became a city in 1785.

Saint John

The harbour at Saint John was discovered and mapped in 1604 by de Monts and Champlain. It is formed by the estuary of the St. John River where it enters the Bay of Fundy. Today, the harbour facilities include grain elevators with a capacity of 3 million bushels, coal docks, oil storage tanks and 15,000 feet of berthing space.

The famous Market Slip on the east side of the harbour is one of the two or three most photographed spots in the Maritimes. It runs into the heart of the business district of the city. A schooner or two and a number of smaller craft are likely to be berthed at its sides. King Street runs uphill from the end of the Slip to King's Square. The effect, at first glance, is that of a continuous street, the lower end paved with water and used by ships, the upper end paved conventionally and used by trucks and automobiles.

Saint John, in several ways, is one of the most unusual of Canadian cities. Built as it is on a series of peninsulas around the harbour, it is often easier and quicker to go from one part of it to another by boat than by automobile. The official boundaries of the city take in several square miles of forest between Kennebecasis Bay to the north and the built-up areas around the harbour. It has a number of suburbs, one of which, Lan-

caster, became officially New Brunswick's fourth city on the 350th anniversary of the discovery of the site by Champlain and de Monts. The metropolitan area had a population of 78,337 in 1951.

The first English village in the area was established at Portland Point in 1762, but the number of settlers was small until the influx of Loyalists in 1784. The Loyalists founded two towns, one on each side of the harbour, and these eventually merged into the incorporated city.

As a seaport, Saint John is a rival of Halifax, especially as a winter port when Montreal Harbour is frozen over. With the exception of an extension in the form of the Dominion Atlantic Railway in Nova Scotia, connected by ferry to Saint John, the city is the eastern terminus of the Canadian Pacific Railway.

Regionally, Saint John is a wholesale distributing centre for the southwestern part of the Province. It is also one of the most important industrial centres of the Maritime Provinces.

Included among its industries are marine construction and repair, sugar refining, pulp and paper manufacture, the production and repair of railway rolling stock and the processing of spices and other imported foodstuffs. The printing and publishing business of New

Moncton

Brunswick is centred almost entirely in Saint John. From the port itself, the chief exports are grain, flour, lumber, logs and potatoes. The major imports include raw sugar, petroleum and petroleum products and coal.

Moncton, at the head of navigation on the Petitcodiac River, was first settled by the French. After the Acadian expulsion, British and German settlers moved in. But the last Census indicated that more than a third of the city's population was of French ancestry.

Under its present name, Moncton is comparatively young among Maritime towns and cities. It was incorporated as a town and given its name in 1875. Previously, the community was known as "The Bend", the reference being to the bend in the Petitcodiac River that occurs there. In the great days of sailing ships, between 1830 and 1870, "The Bend" was a famous shipbuilding centre. The last full-rigged ship was built there in 1874. In the heyday of shipbuilding as many as eight or ten ships might be under construction simultaneously.

In the present day, transportation overshadows all other activities in Moncton. When the Intercolonial Railway was completed in 1876, Moncton became an important railway junction. It is now the headquarters of the Atlantic Region of the Canadian National Railways. Both the main repair shops and the general offices of this part of the C.N.R. are located in the city.

In recent years, air transport has also become important at Moncton. The airport, developed largely during wartime, has runways long enough for transatlantic planes, and it is sometimes used as an alternative air terminal. It is also used regularly by Trans-Canada Airlines and by local airlines and charter aircraft serving various parts of the Maritime Provinces.

Industries include textiles, meat packing, biscuits, oil refining, wire and other metal products and woodworking.

The village of Rexton, two miles from Richibucto at the mouth of the Richibucto River on Northumberland Strait, was the birthplace of Andrew Bonar Law, Prime Minister of Great Britain for 209 days in 1922-23.

Edmunston, with a population of more than 10,000, is the largest town in the northwestern section of the Province. A centre of the pulp and paper industry and an outfitting point for loggers and pulpwood cutters, it is also a railway junction and gateway both to the State of Maine and to the Province of Quebec. It is located on the St. John where that river forms part of the boundary between Canada and the United States.

Campbellton, on the estuary of the Restigouche River, has a population of nearly 8,000. It is a centre

of the lumber industry. There is a pulp mill in a nearby village and 16 miles away a large pulp and paper mill in the town of Dalhousie.

In the southeastern corner of the Province is the small university town of Sackville, the seat of Mount Allison University. The powerful shortwave broadcasting installation of CBC International Service is located on the nearby Tantramar salt marshes. College Bridge, near Memramcook, between Sackville and Moncton, is the seat of St. Joseph's University.

Among the larger communities in the northeastern part of the Province are Chatham, Newcastle and Bathurst, which range in population between 4,000 and 5,500. Bathurst is the location of a large pulp mill and a classical college. Chatham and Newcastle on the lower Miramichi River developed as sawmill towns.

Up the St. John River valley from Fredericton, in the potato-growing district of New Brunswick, is the town of Woodstock, with a population of about 4,000. A few miles beyond Woodstock is the smaller town of Hartland where there is a potato starch factory. Still further north along the St. John is Grand Falls, with a hydro-electric power development.

New Brunswick's most famous summer resort town is St. Andrews, where the St. Croix River enters Passa-

maquoddy Bay. A short distance up the St. Croix is St. Stephen, a Canadian town which is noted, with its American neighbour, Calais, Maine, across the river, for sharing various municipal facilities such as, for example, a virtually joint fire department. The two communities also share each other's festive occasions such as the First of July and the Fourth of July.

Photos courtesy of the New Brunswick Travel Bureau

Map in this pamphlet prepared by the Geographical Branch of the Department of Mines and Technical Surveys.

HOW TO USE THIS PAMPHLET

NEW BRUNSWICK

This is Article No. 9 in the CITIZENSHIP SERIES of CURRENT AFFAIRS pamphlets.

Read this pamphlet carefully, make notes and follow a definite plan in presenting your material in the Discussion Hour.

The headings in the pamphlet are arranged so that you can present your material in an orderly manner.

Place-names can be found on the accompanying map which should be referred to frequently so as to familiarize the group with the geography of the Province.

The following questions are suggested for discussion at the end of the presentation of your material:

1. What part has New Brunswick played in the history of North America?
2. What have been the main trends in the settlement of New Brunswick?
3. What are the principal geographic and climatic features of New Brunswick?
4. Which of New Brunswick's industries do you consider the most important and why are they important?

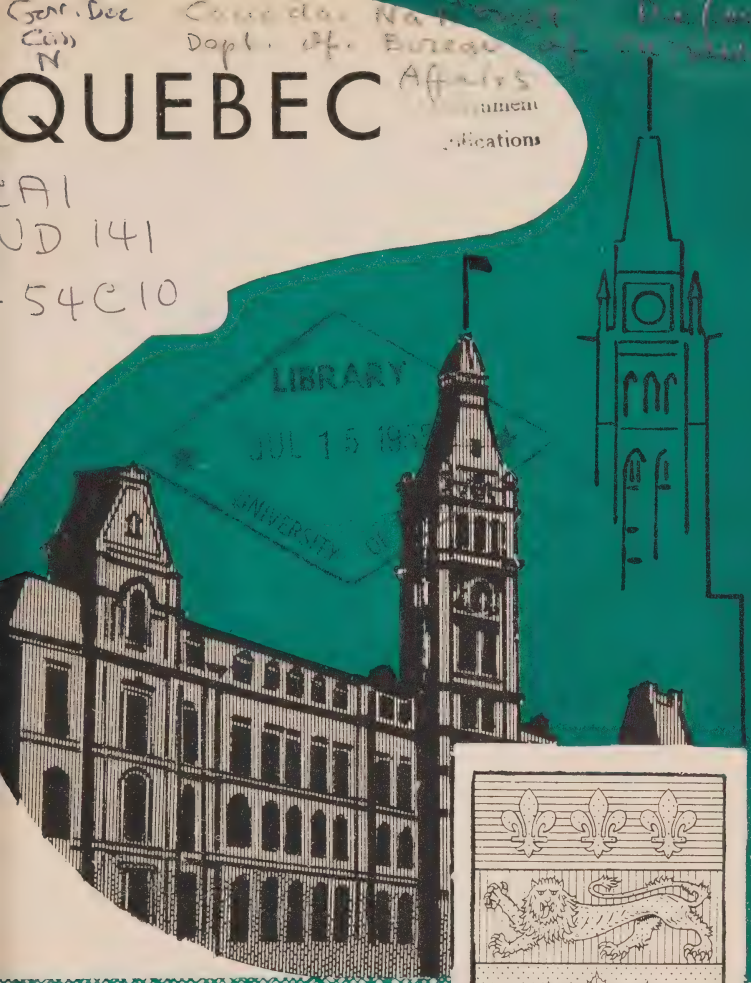
Do not forget to make a summary of the discussion in the last five minutes of the hour.

EDMOND CLOUTIER, C.M.G., O.A., D.S.P.
QUEEN'S PRINTER AND CONTROLLER OF STATIONERY, OTTAWA, 1954


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QUEBEC



Citizenship

no. 10

FOR THE CANADIAN FORCES

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The tenth of a series of pamphlets on Canadian Citizenship, prepared especially for the Armed Forces by the Bureau of Current Affairs.

The Province of Quebec

By Jean Bruchési, LL.L.,D.Sc.Pol.,D. ès L.,F.R.S.C

No. 10

BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, CANADA

Introduction

In a foreword to the first of the regular series of *Current Affairs* pamphlets issued in October, 1951, the Minister of National Defence stated that service personnel "should know as much as possible about Canada . . .".

Accordingly, the Bureau of Current Affairs has initiated a series of citizenship pamphlets. In this series five have been published to date dealing with the following topics:—

The Canadian Constitution
How Parliament Works
Local Government
The Serviceman and His Vote
The Public Service of Canada.

We are now issuing citizenship pamphlets which tell about the ten provinces of Canada and Yukon and the Northwest Territories. This material will supplement the first five pamphlets.

We sincerely hope that service personnel will obtain a broader understanding and deeper appreciation of their country from a study and discussion of this material.

HARRY R. LOW
Director, Bureau of Current Affairs

The Province of Quebec

By Jean Bruchési, LL.L.,D.Sc.Pol.,D. ès L.,F.R.S.C.*

THE PROVINCE OF QUEBEC is not only the oldest of the ten political divisions which together make up Canada, as we shall see later on when we summarize the main phases of its history: it is also the largest. Its vast trapezium-like shape stretches over an area of 594,860 square miles (380 million acres), the size of France, Germany and Spain combined. Yet this great expanse, almost one-sixth of Canada's whole surface, is by no means all, or even mainly, habitable and arable. So far at least the experts have estimated that the usable portion accounts for only some 120,000 square miles, of which about 40,000 or 50,000 are suitable for farming. Forests alone sprawl across 350,000 square miles, more than all of France, and nine-tenths of Quebec's territory is made up of sedimentary and volcanic Precambrian rocks giving it an extremely rich subsoil which, however,

* Mr. Jean Bruchési, Under Secretary and Deputy Registrar of the Province of Quebec, was President of the Royal Society of Canada when this article was written.



Forest Industry

is still largely unexplored. In other words the northern zone, or nearly three-quarters of the whole Province, is barely inhabited and scarcely utilized and a quarter of the total is entirely sterile.

When they describe the relief of the Province, geographers confine their observations to the mere twenty-five per cent of its area which they consider productive, and they classify this fraction under three headings. The first heading is the Canadian Shield, composed of the oldest layers of the earth's crust, which actually blankets three-quarters of Quebec's extent. The other two are the St. Lawrence Lowland, traversed by the St. Lawrence, also a very old land mass, and finally the Appalachian Highlands. These are the foundations upon which, through the centuries, erosion gradually shaped

three platforms: the Shickshock Platform (the oldest), the Appalachian Platform (the most extensive) and the Quebec Platform. It is by reference to these basic formations in Quebec's relief, later subjected to slow modification by glacial action, that we are enabled to divide the productive portion of the Province in three great regions.

The Laurentian Region, in the middle, is rightly called in a sense the key section of the Province because its surface is varied, its climate is gentler, the St. Lawrence runs through it and it was settled first. It was along both banks of the River estuary that the first colonists settled and the earliest trading posts were founded and grew in the course of time into cities and towns. It is in this region, stretching from the sea to the Ontario frontier, that the people have devoted themselves to the greatest variety of occupations; navigation and fishing, farming, exploitation of the forests, the tourist industry and, of course, manufacturing. It is there that we find today one of the greatest paper-making areas in the world as well as busy industrial communities, like Quebec and Montreal, which are also great seaports.

To the southeast stretches the Appalachian Region, including the Gaspé Peninsula, the south shore of the St. Lawrence estuary and the Eastern Townships: agricultural or wooded lands, fit for grazing and full of charm for tourists. Many of the people who inhabit this region live by deep-sea fishing, as in Gaspé, or by manufacturing, as



Fisherman at Percé

in Sherbrooke, and there is one section of its subsoil which yields two-thirds of the world's entire production of asbestos.

The third and last region, the area north of the St. Lawrence and the Ottawa, is the Laurentians. Up and around Lake St. John or Temiscaming you will find the forest dominant: but because there are abundant natural waterfalls and mankind has learned to harness the numerous fast-flowing rivers, industry is playing a constantly increasing role in those parts, agriculture is developing and the tourist trade, mainly north of Montreal, is an increasingly prosperous occupation. Because the major portion of this region lies within the Canadian Shield, its subsoil is rich in gold and copper ore, with iron and titanium abundant east of the Saguenay in New Quebec.

Though it rises to no great heights, the land surface of Quebec is far from a monotonous plain. There are frequent chains of mountains, such as the Laurentians, north of the St. Lawrence, which reach to nearly 6,000 feet on the Labrador Coast, the Shickshocks in Gaspé whose average altitude is over 3,000 feet, and the Notre-Dame Chain in the Eastern Townships, which scarcely top 2,000 or 3,000 feet.

With such varied landscape, situated geographically where nature has placed it, the Province of Quebec could not be expected to enjoy an equable climate; and indeed the climate is, in the main, somewhat harsh. As a matter of fact, the weather runs the whole gamut in the course of the seasons. Many parts of the Province are quite aptly described on occasion by the saying about Madrid: "Nine months of winter and three of Hell." This certainly holds true sometimes for the north and northwest, where the climate is extreme all year with early, long winters, and short, hot summers. On the other hand, though the Montreal district is warmest because it is sunniest, even Quebec, with its somewhat more rugged weather, earlier winter and later spring, enjoys luminous summers. And fall is the most striking of all the seasons, in Quebec, in Montreal, along the Richelieu River, in the Eastern Townships and throughout the Matapedia Valley, within the vast National Parks as well as outside, for then the forests

astonish the eyes with a full scale of glorious greens, yellows and reds.

The name *Quebec* was restricted for a long time to the city which Champlain founded in 1608 on the St. Lawrence where the river narrows. For years Quebec was just a frontier town. It had none of the monuments which generally deck a capital. It was important because it was where the Governors of the French Colony lived from the beginning. Then came a day when Talon, the Great Intendant, dreamt of making it the capital of an empire reaching from Hudson Bay to the Gulf of Mexico and from Newfoundland to the foothills of the Rockies. Most of the 10,000-odd settlers who came from France between 1608 and 1760 landed in Quebec, then scattered to establish homes for themselves along the St. Lawrence. Quebec, rather than Montreal founded in 1642, was the springboard from which the missionaries started on their apostolic journeys to bring Christianity to the Indians, voyages of exploration and discovery were launched into the far corners of the continent of North America toward James Bay and the Great Lakes, the Ohio and the Mississippi and warlike expeditions set out against the English in the south and the savage tribes of the interior. Quebec, as the seat of a bishopric, was in a sense the religious capital of a scattered people whose faithful were to be found as far away as Acadia and Louisiana. The town never grew beyond 4,000 or 5,000 inhabitants; yet its

institutions, the Soverign Council and the Tribunals, its great officers and its officials governed, to the best of their ability, the political, economic and social life of the far-flung colony, and defended it for a century and a half against all the assaults of its resolute enemies, until the day when the entry of Wolfe's troops into the City of Quebec was finally to seal the fate of the French possessions in America.

Of all its possessions, constituting in the aggregate a veritable empire, which France lost formally in 1763 (with the exception of Acadia, ceded to the British in 1713 and Louisiana, to be held until 1803), the most important was unquestionably Canada. But the ink was scarcely dry on the Treaty of Paris when the term *Province of Quebec* began to be used in official documents to designate the territory inhabited by 60,000-odd Frenchmen who had become subjects of the King of Britain. When King George III determined to establish civil government in his new colonies, 8 October 1763, it was to the *Province of Quebec* that James Murray was assigned by royal proclamation as the first British Governor. But the Province of Quebec referred to then was merely a stretch lying within two lines drawn east and west from Labrador to Lake Nipissing and from Cap des Rosiers to Lake Champlain. Eleven years later, when the Thirteen Colonies to the south were getting ready to seize their independence by armed force, the Parliament of West-

minster passed "An Act for making more effectual Provision for the Government of the *Province of Quebec*". This was the celebrated *Quebec Act*, which not only restored the historic boundaries of Canada but added to them the territories of the Erie and Ohio. Thus, in effect, at a time when vagueness was the rule in fixing boundaries, there was established a Province of Quebec stretching from Hudson Bay to the United States and from Labrador to the Head of the Great Lakes. It was not to last long, though, for a new Act, passed in London in 1791, divided that Province of Quebec into two separate administrative units, Upper Canada and Lower Canada. Forty-nine years later the two regions were reunited and resumed life in common under one government as the *Province of Canada*, which survived until the July day in 1867 when a new *Canada* was formed. This time the Province of Quebec recovered its entity and its personality, geographically as well as politically, within a Confederation which united four provinces initially and later acquired six more.

It is generally conceded that this union of British colonies, in 1867, and consequently the Confederation of Canada, would have been impossible without the consent of Lower Canada. The latter, as Lord Carnarvon asserted, entered Confederation only with the feeling and understanding that its institutions would always be respected everywhere. The men who negotiated together

were equals. Thus they were able to leave all the churches free as they had been to administer and develop as they saw fit. Thus they acknowledged that the French language enjoyed official status within the Federal jurisdiction as well as in the Province of Quebec. Thus legislation governing education and civil law are within the jurisdiction of the provinces.

There was no thought in the minds of the *Canadians,* as they were called by the new masters of the country, that in passing under the sovereignty of the British Crown they were to forfeit their religion, their language or their most cherished traditions; and they managed to keep them all. But, especially after Loyalists began to pour in from the American Revolution, they could have little hope of maintaining a numerical majority except, possibly, in the Province of Quebec. Even there it was a hard struggle for them to preserve their own identity, make distinctive contributions of their own to Canada's growth and work for the triumph of political freedom, except when they were foresighted and practical enough to ally themselves with sympathetic British elements. Yet it was to be by such means, through alliances such as those between Lafontaine and Baldwin or Macdonald and Cartier in the political field, that Canada was to attain a privileged status within the British Empire. Similarly, the contribution of the French inhabitants of Quebec in the economic field was a factor in the progress of the country, both before

and after 1867, though it was not as great as that of the English inhabitants. After Confederation the role of the Province of Quebec became increasingly important. When it fell to the lot of a French Catholic son of Quebec to assume the honours and responsibilities of the office of Prime Minister of Canada, it surprised nobody to hear him proclaim that the XXth Century belonged to Canada. Yet it took fifty more years of effort and two world wars to make his audacious prophecy come true.

In the meanwhile, the population of the Province was growing, from 1,191,516 in 1871 to 1,648,898 in 1901. It is now 4,055,681 (1951 census), of whom slightly more than four-fifths (3,327,128) speak French as their mother tongue. So the population has more than doubled in half a century, thanks, no doubt, in part to immigration, but mainly to the factor of natural growth whose rate, among French Canadians, is one of the highest in the world at 30·5 per thousand. And this has transpired although thousands of Quebec's children have migrated to the other provinces where they number more than a million, and to the United States as well, and though the death rate, long a source of grave anxiety, has dropped substantially only in recent years.

The French Canadians are for the most part Roman Catholics, but they have the greatest respect for the rights of minorities, for the beliefs of more than 600,000 non-Catholic Quebecers and for the English language, which

is spoken by 750,000, of whom 150,000 are Catholics. It is no more of a problem for the immigrants, mainly from Europe, who give such a cosmopolitan air to Montreal and some of the other industrial centres, to become true Canadians in the Province of Quebec than anywhere else. There is certainly no lack of room for them, though a certain degree of caution may sometimes be necessary. Industry and the exploitation of Quebec's natural resources cry out for manpower. Agriculture has its urgent needs. And colonization, long the dominant activity in the Province if not, indeed, its lifeblood, still has a notable contribution to make to the conquest of the forest by man and to the rehabilitation of an unfortunately large number of abandoned farms.

The Law of 1867 created a confederation or, more precisely, a federation: a composite State which began with four provinces, now multiplied to ten. As federalism predicates a sharing of powers between governments, the Constitution makes such a partition between the Federal Government, whose jurisdiction runs equally in all the provinces, and the governments of the provinces within their borders. Thus the Province of Quebec enjoys, along with the other provinces, certain powers, within the limits established by law, which are entirely its own. The Lieutenant-Governor (appointed by the Governor-General-in-Council, which is to say the Federal Government of the day) and the local Cabinet exercise the execu-

tive power together. A Legislative Assembly, elected by popular vote and made up of 92 members, exercises the legislative power concurrently with a Legislative Council and the Lieutenant-Governor. Quebec has the only Legislative Council left in Canada. Its 24 members are appointed for life by the Crown (in this instance the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, which is to say the Provincial Government of the day). As to the judicial power, it is true that the Federal Government appoints all the Superior Court judges in every province, but it is equally true that the *administration* of justice is the responsibility of the provinces, which are free to establish lower courts at will.

English Criminal Law, which is of Federal jurisdiction, is in force in the Province of Quebec as it is in every other province. But, since 1866, the Province has had a Civil Code of its own, based on the Napoleonic Code and ancient French law, whereas the nine other provinces apply a system which stems from the Common Law of England. At the bottom of the scale in the Province, in civil and criminal cases, come the courts of first instance: Justices of the Peace, Commissioners' Courts, Social Welfare Courts and Recorders' Courts; then, as we ascend the scale, Magistrates' Courts, the Circuit Court (in Montreal only) and Courts of the Sessions of the Peace (Criminal); finally, we have the Superior Court (the main tribunal), the Court of Assize (a Criminal Court pre-

sided over by a Superior Court judge) and the Court of Queen's Bench or Court of Appeals.

Human societies, to survive, must have not only political and judicial institutions but other associations which generally go back further in history than political institutions do. Among such institutions, which begin with the family, are the parish, the village and the town.

A notable institution of this kind in Quebec is the parish, which has played a preponderant role from the very first days of New France, and still plays it, in the history as well as in the religious, economic and social life of the Province. The parish is a religious as well as a civil *corporation* and it does not attain its full status until it has received the twofold sanction of the religious authority, as represented by the Bishop, and the civil authority, the Government of the Province, which confirms the act of the religious authority.

But the parish is not sufficient to meet all the needs of men living together in a society. And since the State cannot do everything itself in Quebec, any more than it can anywhere else, it delegates a portion of its powers to other institutions, most notable of which are County and Municipal Councils.

The municipal system is British in origin and it has existed in the Province of Quebec only since 1845. Municipal administrations draw their powers from the provin-

cial authority. The law which provides for and regulates municipalities in the Province of Quebec dates from 1869, but it was not consolidated in more or less final form until 1916. It is applied to urban municipalities (cities and towns), rural municipalities (villages, parishes, townships or parts of villages, parishes or townships) to county councils or municipalities (whose powers touch affairs of general interest to the county), and to Catholic and Protestant school boards which are subject to regulation by school law.

The land of Canada loomed in front of the founders and first settlers as "forest primeval". But vast and dense as the forests were, they could not conceal the fact that nature had lavished upon the country another important element, water. The Frenchmen of three centuries ago were struck by the variety and abundance of game and vegetation long before they had ascertained whether the soil contained any gold, silver, iron or copper. Cartier and Champlain after him were struck by the quality and fertility of the land and the fecundity of the St. Lawrence and its tributaries, describing the soil as "good as it may be possible to see and very fruitful" and the river as "the most abounding in fishes of all kinds that it lies within the memory of man to have seen or heard".

In the course of time, animal life ceased to be the essential resource it had been for generations, particularly in the era of the *coureurs de bois*. The fisheries,

also, have lost the comparative importance they enjoyed in the past. Inland fisheries have become almost wholly the realm of sportsmen, though deep-sea fishing is still the main occupation of the people of Gaspé and the Magdalen Islands. In spite of the radical development of industry, agriculture has remained one of the fundamentals of Quebec's economy. There is no denying that only about 10 per cent of Quebec's soil is arable and, of these 32 to 36 million tillable acres, some 15 million are still to be put to use. The rural population of the Province had fallen to 32·7 per cent by 1951, from 77·2 per cent in 1871 and 60 per cent in 1901. Quebec is therefore no longer the essentially agricultural province which it was still at the dawn of the XXth Century. Nevertheless, after long years of routine methods and inadequate technique, modern farming methods have now been developed to such an extent that the value of agricultural production, discounting higher prices, climbed from $144 million in 1926 to $540 million in 1951. Mixed farming has always been popular and specialization is increasing in dairying and pork and poultry production.

Vast areas have been opened to farming in the last century, first (about 1840) in the Eastern Townships, then in the Lake St. John and Saguenay and the Gatineau and Laurentian Regions. Temiscaming was opened in 1885 and, 27 years later, the settlement of Abitibi was begun. But the St. Lawrence valley, whose fertility so

amazed Champlain, is still the main agricultural region in the Province of Quebec.

Fur and fish no longer hold the important places they occupied in the economy of the Province two or three centuries ago, but other natural resources have come to play a large part instead. Quebec's forests, covering two-thirds of the Province and two-fifths of the wooded area of the whole nation, form the basis for an intensive industrial exploitation which will be discussed later. But the signs all point to the likelihood that Quebec's future wealth will come mainly from the rocks, whose exploration has scarcely begun.

These rocks have always produced building materials such as granite, marble and limestone and their production and use are still extensive. From early times, when systematic prospecting was still unknown, the search for minerals and metals has resulted in profitable "strikes". As settlement spread north and west, and particularly as the demands of industry, stimulated by two world wars, became more insistent, the problem of exploring the suspected wealth in Quebec's rocks was pressed more firmly and finally solved. Earlier discoveries of gold, silver, zinc and nickel in Temiscaming and Abitibi and of asbestos, copper and chrome in the Eastern Townships, have just been followed in the rocks of Ungava or Northern Quebec, on the north shore of the St. Lawrence, by yields of treasure in the form of iron and



Disking

titanium ore. Even in Gaspé, oil reserves and copper deposits have been found and there are notable veins of zinc and lead in other parts of the Province. It is scarcely surprising to find that more than one-fifth of Canada's mineral production is now in Quebec and that the net value of this production increased from $92,800,000 in 1946 to $270 million in 1953. Yet iron ore production in Northern Quebec is still in its infancy though gigantic works are in progress. Once these works are completed, and a pipeline has been laid between Gaspé and the North Shore, and the St. Lawrence has been deepened above Montreal, tremendous developments are to be expected. The prospect of vast wealth is all the surer in that the Province of Quebec is lavishly endowed with one of the essentials of all riches in our times: hydro-electric power. Fresh water, one of the many natural resources which a generous Providence has showered upon the Province of Quebec, covers one-eighth

of its area and at this stage it is perhaps the most important asset of all. For, while Canada's total ascertained reserves of waterpower amount to 50 million horsepower, Quebec contains almost half of this total and still uses only 7,800,000 horsepower (1953) which nevertheless in 1952, at 32,142,000 kilowatt-hours, was more than 50 per cent of Canada's entire output. When it is realized what the harnessing of falling water means in terms of motive force and electrical energy, the privileged position of Quebec in industry, in trade and in the domestic economy, can be appreciated.

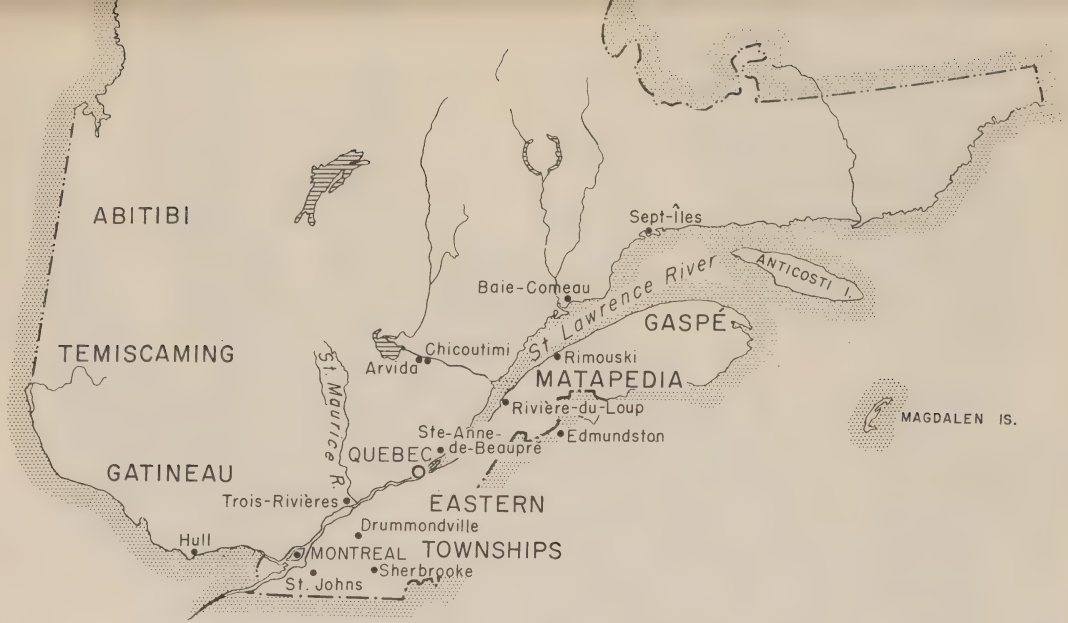
While Quebec was ceasing to be primarily rural, it ceased to be primarily agricultural. It is fast becoming, in fact, Canada's most highly industrialized province. And there is no sign of any end to this comparatively recent development. Indeed, it seems far likelier to be intensified if we consider the number of new plants being established every month if not every week and the amounts of capital which are pouring in, attracted by the abundant natural resources and reassured by the nature of the social laws now in force and being perfected and by the social discipline of a people so far generally proof against subversive ideas. Even so, however, Quebec is not Canada's leading province in either volume or net or gross value of production. That rank belongs to Ontario, except in the case of certain industries, and it is still in Ontario that the greatest number of plants will be



Noranda Mines

found, though the growth of new factories seems to have become more rapid in Quebec in the last couple of years. Yet the gross value of Quebec's production, which was $3,788,497,123 in 1949, exceeded $5 billion in 1952 and accounted for more than 30 per cent of all Canadian production. There are very few types of industry which will not be found in one or more of the industrial regions of the Province, particularly in the main area in and around Montreal. Quebec leads in the textile and garment industries, in footwear, pulpwood and newsprint, processing of tobacco, smelting of aluminum, shipbuilding, aircraft, railway rolling-stock and chemical products. Of course the Province imports raw materials in great quantities, such as bauxite, cotton and wool, for some of these industries, but other raw materials are found in abundance at home and fabricated on the spot. Unfortunately many raw materials like wood-pulp, iron ore, copper and asbestos are still exported in a raw state.


QUEBEC
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miles


ABITIBI
TEMISCAMING
GATINEAU
Hull
Trois-Rivières
Drummondville
MONTREAL
Sherbrooke
St. Johns
EASTERN TOWNSHIPS
QUEBEC
St. Maurice R.
Arvida
Chicoutimi
Baie-Comeau
Sept-Îles
St Lawrence River
ANTICOSTI I.
GASPÉ
Rimouski
MATAPEDIA
Rivière-du-Loup
Edmundston
Ste-Anne-de-Beaupré
MAGDALEN IS.

Montreal

A few years ago, the Province of Quebec was considered the stamping-ground of a few giant industries. The multiplication of smelters, refineries and fabricating and finishing plants has made this no longer true. Indeed, where until recently the trend was toward concentration of Quebec's industry in one or two centres, mainly in Montreal, factories today are going up almost everywhere. The Montreal area is still the fastest-growing; but plants have multiplied in such old industrial centres as Quebec, Sherbrooke, Three Rivers and Hull, and other urban agglomerations in essentially rural districts, Chicoutimi, Valleyfield, Granby, St. Hyacinthe, St.-Jean, Joliette, Sorel, Drummondville and Rimouski, as well as Baie-Comeau and Seven Islands on the North Shore, are absorbing a substantial share of the Province's 12,000-odd manufacturing concerns.

Industrial activity on such a scale, and it has by no means reached its peak, exerts a deep influence, directly and indirectly, on the commercial life of the Province. In the wholesale and retail trades the volume of turnover is increasing constantly but, alas, so are prices! The cost of living is higher in Montreal than in any other Canadian city. But Montreal is, and always has been, a leading financial centre and, though Quebec has a very busy waterfront, it is also Canada's chief seaport, in spite of



the fact that it is closed to navigation for four or five months in the year. Some 30 per cent of all Canada's imports and exports are handled through ports in the Province of Quebec and most of these goods pass through Montreal, which is the hub of a vast network of railways and airlines and where more than a quarter of Quebec's population is concentrated.

Among the privileges which the French Canadians defended most strenuously in 1867 and made the greatest efforts to safeguard were the schools. The Constitution gives the provinces the exclusive right to legislate in matters of education. The Quebec school system is different from those of the other provinces, and seems more complicated. It may not be perfect, but it is not unfair to anybody. It is based on genuine respect for the rights of all, the French Canadians being sole masters at every level in their own schools, as the English Protestants are in theirs, with equitable provision made in the Protestant organization for the Jews.

The Council of Public Instruction was reorganized in 1876 after an ephemeral Department of Public Instruction had disappeared. The Council had been created twenty years earlier and it is made up of two Committees: a Catholic Committee, whose members are the Bishops of the Province with an equal number of laymen, and a Protestant Committee, whose members, mostly laymen, equal the number of laymen on the Catholic Committee.

The Council is headed by a Superintendent who acts, under the authority of the Provincial Secretary, as a sort of liaison officer between it and the Government. All public schools come under the Council, even in the big cities where school boards exercise administrative functions. Study programmes and text-books, at all stages of primary teaching, in normal schools and in schools of domestic science, also come under the jurisdiction of the Council; in actual practice, under one of its two Committees. Specialized technical, arts, crafts and trades training, come under either the Department of Social Welfare and Youth or the Secretariat of the Province, the latter concerning itself with secondary or higher education only in so far as the distribution of government grants to universities and classical colleges are concerned. Quebec now has compulsory education up to age 14, and the principle of free text-books is acknowledged officially.

There are 10,315 schools of all kinds in the Province of Quebec (1950), 38,290 professors and teachers and a school population of almost 850,000. There are some 7,800 primary and elementary schools, almost 1,200 complementary and intermediate schools, at least 520 primary high schools, with 678,000 pupils all told; some 60 kindergartens attended by over 4,000 children; 90 normal schools with a registration of more than 6,000; 70 classical colleges for boys and girls and seminaries for theological students with an enrolment of almost 17,000;

five universities with about 40,000 undergraduate and graduate students; three senior agricultural colleges, one, established by the Province as long ago as 1859, being the first of its kind in Canada. Schools for specialized training are on the increase. There are six technical schools, among which Montreal's is outstanding in the Commonwealth; a school of furniture design and cabinet-making, a school of graphic arts, a conservatory of music with a branch in Quebec City, two schools of fine arts, all among the best in the country when they are not the only ones of their kind; some 40 schools of arts and crafts, six intermediate and eight regional schools of agriculture, eight agricultural orphanages, a dairy school, more than 30 schools of domestic science, not to mention a score of schools for the blind, the deaf and dumb and for abnormal or crippled children, in addition to more than a hundred independent or private schools. Adult education has been in existence in the Province ever since 1872.

Naturally, the direct contribution of the Government represents a lot of money, almost $88 million a year in subsidies or tax funds, exclusive of special grants. This is only slightly less than three-quarters of the total cost of education in the Province.

The Constitutional Act of 1867, which defines the jurisdictions of the Federal and Provincial States, makes no mention of arts and letters. Consequently, by reason

of the two cultures which arise out of the dual origin of the majority of the Canadian people, the Province of Quebec, where most of the French Canadians live, has found itself bearing a responsibility with which the English-speaking provinces have had to concern themselves only to a lesser extent. As a result, Quebec has contributed by common acknowledgement and consent more than any other province to the promotion of arts and letters in our country. This intervention may have manifested itself in the last half-century mainly in the granting of generous subsidies to individuals and groups, but it has also taken the form of permanent foundations.

For example, hundreds of young Canadians have received bursaries for study abroad; among them, numerous artists, musicians, painters, sculptors, ceramists, goldsmiths and architects were thus enabled to complete their training in Europe or the United States. Many have become famous and their reputations have spread far beyond the frontiers of their native land.

In 1922, the Government founded the literary and scientific awards popularly known as *Prix David*. These are annual contests, and the sum of $5,000 is distributed every year among the writers of the best scientific and literary works published by Canadians who live in the Province. More recently, in 1944, the interest of the public authorities in the things of the spirit was shown by the establishment of a *Grand Prize for Painting,* now

renamed *Grand Prize for Fine Arts:* endowing painting, sculpture and decorative art in rotation and restricted, like the prize for literary and scientific works, to Canadians domiciled in Quebec. Incidentally, the foundation of some of the schools already discussed has also been a direct result of this interest.

The *cultural* activities of the local government are not restricted, moreover, to such bursaries, awards and schools though, of themselves, they would make Quebec unique in Canada. One of the greatest libraries in the country, *la Bibliothèque St.-Sulpice* in Montreal, a provincial service of archives which compare favourably with any other institution of the kind, an art gallery and a museum of natural history in Quebec City should be added to the list.

Direct encouragement of painters, sculptors, woodworkers, ceramists and their fellows by purchase of their works is supplemented by annual expenditures of tens of thousands of dollars in the purchase of the publications of writers.

The artistic past of the Province of Quebec, if it is not the richest in Canada, is certainly the oldest. But it remained almost unknown until the end of the last century and was ignored accordingly. A few amateurs began, around 1890, to sketch worthy but fragmentary works of learning and research. Then the Government commissioned Pierre-Georges Roy to organize an

Archives Service and created a Historic Monuments Commission, whereupon the curious and the research-minded began to study ancient monuments and manuscripts, to explore the sidelights, legends and customs of yesteryear and to revive folklore. Oftener than not they were helped by the State's underwriting the cost of publication and setting up, in 1936, a methodical inventory of the rich artistic patrimony of the Province. This inventory, still in process of completion, has quadrupled our knowledge of the plastic and applied arts and has cleared up many an obscure nook in the political, religious and economic history of our Province.

Nothing would be easier or perhaps more invidious than to draw up a list of men, women and works now contributing to the radiation of arts and letters in all their forms throughout the Province, across Canada and even abroad. Quebec's handicrafts alone, which have grown remarkably in scope and quality, are worthy of detailed study and this applies to crocheted rugs, gold and silver work, wood carving and ceramics as well as enamels. The magnificent results which have been attained testify beyond question to the realism of the steps taken to encourage arts and letters in the Province of Quebec. They testify, also, that in the fields of painting and sculpture, as in music, crafts and literature, Quebecers are by no means inferior to their fellow-Canadians. They often stand, indeed, in the very first rank. How

much poorer the cultural life of Canada would have been, even in the last half-century, had there been no Province of Quebec!

Just as the riches of the subsoil attract magnates of industry and finance to the Province of Quebec in increasing numbers, its historic monuments, the variety and beauty of its scenery and the charm of its centuries-old traditions lead tourists to seek it out. They come in millions year by year, by way of the majestic St. Lawrence waterway, by rail, by road and by air. There were 4,400,000 of them in 1952, Canadians from the other provinces and visitors from outside the country, and between them they spent at least $143 million, making the tourist trade a very profitable industry. These visitors have a great deal to choose from, particularly in the summer months, though many prefer the sharp cold and snowy slopes of winter in the Laurentians north of Montreal and in the neighbourhood of Quebec. Some are more strongly attracted in the summer or fall by a stay at Percé on the Baie des Chaleurs or by Murray Bay or Tadoussac on the St. Lawrence, or the exceedingly picturesque circuit of Gaspé, a trip through the Eastern Townships or along the St. Maurice, the Gatineau or the Richelieu, or by the Saguenay Trip or even a drive along the Beaupré Shore to the Island of Orleans. Were there only its game-filled forests and its countless lakes and streams teeming with fish, the reputation of the Province

as a paradise for tourists would be established by hunters and fishermen alone.

If visitors are moved by devotion or merely by curiosity, there is no dearth of sanctuaries to be visited, such as the internationally famous shrine of Ste. Anne de Beaupré, 20 miles below Quebec, St. Joseph's Oratory in Montreal and Cap de la Madeleine at the gates of Three Rivers, the great basilicas in the larger cities and the many charming little churches and chapels in the Quebec countryside.

If their hearts are stirred by history, Quebec is unimaginably rich and Montreal is not devoid of interesting monuments to see: unless they hearken to the call of an old fort like Chambly's, or a venerable chapel out of the distant past like Tadoussac's, or the ancient houses and churches on the Island of Orleans.

"In the land of Quebec nothing must ever die, nothing must ever change." Thus spoke the voice, forty years ago, to Maria Chapdelaine. Maria's son runs a garage today, her daughter worked in a war plant and her sisters have multiplied. Many of them have moved into the cities whose call Maria would not heed. And many a Eutrope Gagnon has turned his back on the labour of the farm and the forest. Even those who have stayed in the country no longer live as they did a hundred years ago. The city has come to them with its sounds, its ways, its demands and its illusions. "All must never

die" has not disappeared, but the face of rural Quebec has changed a great deal. The railway, the automobile and the plane have curtailed distances, even if they have not drawn men closer to one another. Does this mean, then, that Quebec no longer differs from its sister provinces, that the French Canadians have lost those characteristic traits which used to distinguish them from their fellow citizens? Not at all. Evolution in its inevitable course has not gone as far as that. Neither rural electrification nor the efficient highway system has changed the face of the Quebec countryside essentially.

Though his tools are more modern and he lives more comfortably, the woodsman still pursues his task in the heart of the vast forests of the Province. The fisherman in Gaspé or the Magdalen Islands still seeks his living from the sea, and the *habitant* goes on tilling his land. The steeple, above the clustered houses, crowned with a rooster or a cross, is still the village. The school is probably bigger, now, perhaps more elegant, but it is still the country schoolhouse; and the store, better lighted, maybe, and more tidily laid out, is still the general store. Yesterday's blacksmith shop is today's garage and the main road, the *King's Highway* of yore, is paved with asphalt or concrete. But just around the corner, at the crossroads or on a hillock, the wayside cross of wood or





Fine Craftsmanship

stone or bronze still stretches its arms above all who pass by. Montreal is a metropolis; yet it remains a city with a character all its own, unlike any other city in the world, a city of spires amid the green, of two races who meet without fusing, a cosmopolitan city, not quite North American, no longer European. Quebec huddles no more at the foot of Cape Diamond and it has met with some

reverses in fending off modern "barbarisms" that have mutilated it in the name of progress. But nothing can destroy the charm of its narrow, climbing streets, still less mar the splendour of its Battlefields Park and the matchless panorama which enfolds it in beauty. For the people of America, Quebec is still a doorway into the Old World; and to Europeans when it comes out as it were to meet them, it offers the feeling that they have not yet quite reached the New.



Tadoussac



Of course, there are altogether too many chalets now in all parts of the Old Province, with hot water and showers and questionable architecture. We have been as weak as anybody else in detecting and resisting the invasion of fads. But many a site remains happily unspoiled. Thus, in Montreal in the Place d'Armes area, or from the ramparts of Quebec, the call of another age, if not of another world can still be heard. As we stroll, we see old houses with steep roofs and plaster walls, straight from Normandy or Brittany. And along the way lies many a village utterly free from modern gadgets.

It takes no great search to discover that the French Canadians may not have kept up all their old ways of life but that they have preserved some of the finest traditions of the past in their outlook, as the Irish and Scots have done. Many a surviving symbol testifies to the unshakable fidelity of the people to the past: religious holidays, from All Saints to St. John the Baptist, are scrupulously observed; certain seasonal chores are carried on, such as "butchering" in the fall or "sugaring" in the spring; "crêches" appear in churches and homes as Christmas draws near; the Angelus rings from every belfry, morning, noon and night; auctions are held at the church doors in early November for the souls of the departed; the blessing is bestowed on New Year's Day by the grand-

Ursuline Convent, Quebec

father or father. That these symbols are not as generally or as scrupulously observed as they were fifty years ago cannot be denied. But they are still carried on, though the setting has changed. In any event, the French Canadian, in his outlook on life and on work, is still an ex-



Sugaring

ceptional North American. His outlook, stemming directly from France, implies respect for spiritual, intellectual and moral values of which the world stands more in need today than ever before. In the Province of Quebec, these values still govern the organization of parishes, trade associations and labour unions, and they are not inimical to material progress in the right sense. This, it may be, gives the Province its strength and charm and causes everybody to agree that it has never turned its back on its motto: "Je me souviens".



Benedictine Monastery

HOW TO USE THIS PAMPHLET

QUEBEC

This is Article No. 10 in the CITIZENSHIP SERIES of CURRENT AFFAIRS pamphlets.

Read this pamphlet carefully, make notes and follow a definite plan in presenting your material in the Discussion Hour.

The headings in the pamphlet are arranged so that you can present your material in an orderly manner.

Place-names can be found on the accompanying map which should be referred to frequently so as to familiarize the group with the geography of the Province.

The following questions are suggested for discussion at the end of the presentation of your material:

1. What are the principal geographic and climatic features of the Province of Quebec?
2. What is the contribution of Quebec to the history of Canada?
3. How do the laws of Quebec differ from those of the rest of Canada?
4. What are the chief contributions of Quebec to the economy of Canada?
5. How does Quebec enrich the cultural life of Canada?

Do not forget to make a summary of the discussion in the last five minutes of the hour.

Photos in this pamphlet supplied by courtesy of Provincial Publicity Bureau of Quebec.

EDMOND CLOUTIER, C.M.G., O.A., D.S.P.
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Citizenship

No. 11

FOR THE CANADIAN FORCES

Government
Publications

The eleventh of a series of pamphlets on Canadian Citizenship, prepared especially for the Armed Forces by the Bureau of Current Affairs.

The Province of Ontario

No. 11

BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, CANADA

Introduction

In a foreword to the first of the regular series of *Current Affairs* pamphlets issued in October, 1951, the Minister of National Defence stated that service personnel "should know as much as possible about Canada . . .".

Accordingly, the Bureau of Current Affairs has initiated a series of citizenship pamphlets. In this series five have been published to date dealing with the following topics:—

The Canadian Constitution
How Parliament Works
Local Government
The Serviceman and His Vote
The Public Service of Canada.

We are now issuing citizenship pamphlets which tell about the ten provinces of Canada and Yukon and the Northwest Territories. This material will supplement the first five pamphlets.

We sincerely hope that service personnel will obtain a broader understanding and deeper appreciation of their country from a study and discussion of this material.

HARRY R. LOW
Director, Bureau of Current Affairs

The Province of Ontario

The Province of Ontario is a very irregularly shaped block of land and water which spreads across 10·7 per cent of all Canada. It contains 412,582 square miles, of which 49,300 square miles are lakes and rivers. Among the ten Canadian provinces only Quebec is bigger.

Ontario's population is the largest in Canada. The 1951 Census counted 4,597,542 people living in the Province. This was just under one-third of the nation's 14,009,429 people in that year. Quebec's population then was 4,055,681.

Ontario's people are almost as overwhelmingly of British origin as Quebec's are French. There were 3,081,919 Canadians of British descent living there in the last Census year, while Quebec was the home of 3,327,128 Canadians of French origin. Out of all ten provinces, only Newfoundland has a higher proportion than Ontario of people of British ancestry.

Every year, Ontario accounts for about 40 per cent of the national income of Canada. This makes it the most

productive province of all. Four major industries produce the bulk of this wealth. They are: manufacturing, agriculture, mining and forestry. Manufacturing is responsible for 61 per cent of Ontario's prosperity.

The vast area of the Province, equal to the giant States of Texas and California combined, is oddly shaped because most of the boundary lines are lakes, rivers and seacoast. The salt-water boundary, about 680 miles long, is the shoreline of Hudson Bay and James Bay, on the north and northeast. From its most northerly point, where the Black Duck River empties into Hudson Bay at the Manitoba Border, Ontario reaches south for 1,050 miles to Middle Island, in Lake Erie, which lies farther south than any other point in Canada, and is in the latitude of Northern California. The southern boundary of the Province runs through the St. Lawrence River and the Great Lakes from Lake St. Francis, about 25 miles below Cornwall, as far west as the Pigeon River, which separates Ontario from Minnesota on Lake Superior. Then it follows a series of lakes and rivers to the Lake of the Woods, which lies partly in Ontario, partly in Manitoba and partly in Minnesota. From east to west, Ontario is 1,000 miles across. On the east and northeast Ontario touches Quebec and, below Lake Temiskaming, the boundary between them follows the Ottawa River. On the west and northwest, the Province touches Manitoba all the way.

Geography and history have made two quite distinct *Ontarios* which are popularly known as "Old" or Southern Ontario and "New" or Northern Ontario.

The second biggest province in the second biggest country in the world covers more than two-fifths of a million square miles. There are bound to be considerable geographical variations between different parts of such an immense breadth of land.

For 350 years, Canadians have tended to make their homes and live their lives in an east-west strip not far from the United States Border. So the southern parts of Ontario, like the southern parts of most of the other provinces, are more thickly populated and more highly developed than areas which lie north of the older centres.

"Old" Ontario is a comparatively small corner of the whole Province. If you draw a line along the Mattawa River, Lake Nipissing and French River, from the Ottawa River to Georgian Bay, you will have divided the two *Ontarios* pretty accurately. Southern Ontario is the fraction of the Province which lies on the map below that line. It contains only some 50,000 square miles, about the same as the Maritime Provinces. All the rest of the Province, right to the Manitoba Border, far west of Lake Superior, is "New" Ontario.

Geology

Southern Ontario is divided irregularly into counties, and the counties into townships, which were surveyed on base lines running roughly parallel to the shores of the St. Lawrence River and the Great Lakes. Northern Ontario is only partly surveyed, even now, and it is laid out in townships oriented with the meridian lines.

The geological formation of Northern Ontario is much simpler than that of the "older" parts of the Province. Most of "New" Ontario lies within the Precambrian Shield, an ancient, rocky area which has been fully described in other articles in this series. There is a Coastal Plain around Hudson and James Bays, and along the southern part of the Plain runs the Clay Belt of Northern Ontario, which, at one time, was expected to become a great agricultural area.

The Precambrian Shield, which is also called the Canadian Shield and the Laurentian Plateau, extends into Southern Ontario north of a line drawn from Georgian Bay to the eastern end of Lake Ontario, where it crosses the St. Lawrence between Kingston and Brockville and runs into New York State. Its surface is generally rugged, with successions of rocky hills 100 to 200 feet high. The area has been heavily glaciated and is dotted with large and small lakes of irregular outline. The Canadian Shield is a great store of mineral wealth.

All the rest of "Old" Ontario belongs to the St. Lawrence Lowlands, which are plains covered with silt deposits left in ancient lakes when ice blocked the St. Lawrence outlet at the end of the glacial period. The banks of these old glacial lakes form the sites of some modern cities. Toronto, St. Catharines and Hamilton are on the shores of ancient Lake Iroquois. This is the part of the Province which contains most of the heavy industries, large cities and developed farming areas.

None of Ontario can be called mountainous. The highest point in the whole Province lies at the northeast corner of Lake Superior, and it is only 2,120 feet high. The Plains which border the south and west shores of James and Hudson Bays are low and swampy. North of Lake Superior is the height of land, a wide ridge running east and west and generally over 1,000 feet high. The slope from the height of land to Hudson Bay is very gentle.

The highest area in "Old" Ontario is in Dufferin, Grey and Simcoe counties, where elevations range from 1,400 to 1,700 feet. Wellington and Waterloo counties have elevations of from 1,000 to 1,300 feet. The Niagara Escarpment, a very striking formation, runs in a north-westerly direction from the Niagara Peninsula to the Bruce Peninsula and its height varies between 250 and 300 feet. The eastern part of Ontario is low land, some of

it smoothly rolling, some of it rough and rocky, draining into the Ottawa and St. Lawrence Rivers. Most of this area is between 200 and 300 feet above sea level, rising north of Lake Ontario to 400 or even 500 feet.

There are many lakes and rivers in the Province, some large, some small.

The St. Lawrence River and the Great Lakes, one of the world's most important inland waterways, are to Ontario in a sense what the Mediterranean is to Southern Europe. Lake Superior, 383 miles long and 160 miles wide, reaches the great depth of 1,302 feet and its surface lies 602 feet above sea level. Lake Huron is 21·4 feet lower than Lake Superior and its waters descend 5·5 feet as they funnel through the St. Clair River into Lake St. Clair, the midget of the Great Lakes system, which is a mere 26 miles long, 24 miles wide and 23 feet deep. From Lake St. Clair to Lake Erie, the drop is only 2·9 feet. There the waters gather themselves together for a mighty leap of 326·5 feet over Niagara Falls and through the Niagara River into Lake Ontario, the last of the great chain. Lake Ontario is 193 miles long and 53 miles across. It pours through the Thousand Islands into the International Section of the St. Lawrence which lies between the Province of Ontario and the State of New York. Along this Section will rise great hydro-electric plants when the St. Lawrence Seaway is built.

The Rivers

Ontario's largest lake outside the Great Lakes system is Lake Nipigon, north of Lake Superior. It is 70 miles long and 50 miles wide, and lies 250 feet higher than Lake Superior above sea level.

The Great Lakes, the St. Lawrence and the Ottawa Rivers are all of great importance economically, but none of them belongs exclusively to Ontario. Most of the larger lakes and rivers which are wholly within the Province are located in Northern Ontario, where their usefulness lies mainly in the future. In "New" Ontario, the waterways are still waiting for people to come and develop them.

In "Old" Ontario, on the other hand, the people have not only made use of the natural routes but have created six artificial waterways, so that no part of Southern Ontario is more than 100 miles away from a lake or river port. The Welland Ship Canal carries vessels around Niagara Falls between Lake Ontario and Lake Erie. The Rideau Canal cuts across Eastern Ontario from Kingston, on Lake Ontario, to Ottawa, on the Ottawa River. And the Trent Canal connects Trenton, on Lake Ontario with Port McNicoll, on Georgian Bay. There is a canal of vital importance to Great Lakes shipping at Sault Ste. Marie, and other canals at Cornwall and Prescott bypass difficult rapids on the St. Lawrence River.



Northern River

The most striking feature of Northern Ontario is the abundance of lakes and rivers. The largest lakes, in addition to Nipigon, are Nipissing, Seul, St. Joseph, Abitibi, Sandy, Trout, Wunnummin and Winisk. There are hundreds of smaller ones. The biggest rivers are the Severn and the Winisk, draining into Hudson Bay, and the Attawapiskat, Albany, Moose and Harricanaw, which empty into James Bay. There is a smaller and much better-known Severn River in "Old" Ontario. Lake Simcoe drains through it into Georgian Bay. None of these rivers is likely to yield electricity in very great volume except where they drop down from the Clay Belt to the Coastal Plain.

The Climate

The climate of the greater part of the Province of Ontario is somewhat tempered by the Great Lakes and Hudson Bay. But the northwestern sections are swept in winter by cold winds from the Prairie Provinces. Precipitation varies from about 15 inches a year on Hudson Bay, to some 30 inches near Sudbury and between 26 and 40 inches in Southern Ontario. Most of the inhabited part of Northern Ontario gets from 80 to 100 inches of snow in the winter, but the northern half generally gets less than 60 inches. In Southern Ontario, 10 feet of snowfall is not unusual, though it is considered heavy.

Geography, climate, development and the progress of transportation and communications have given rise to conditions which allow us to divide the Province of Ontario into thirteen regions. Six of these regions are in "Old" Ontario's 50,000 square miles, the remaining seven are in "New" Ontario.

Winter Vacation





Belleville Fair

In Southern Ontario, the regions are:

1. *Eastern Ontario,* a low, rather broken plain, where the chief industry is agriculture and dairying is very important. The chief cities and towns in this area are Ottawa, Kingston, Brockville, Cornwall and Pembroke.

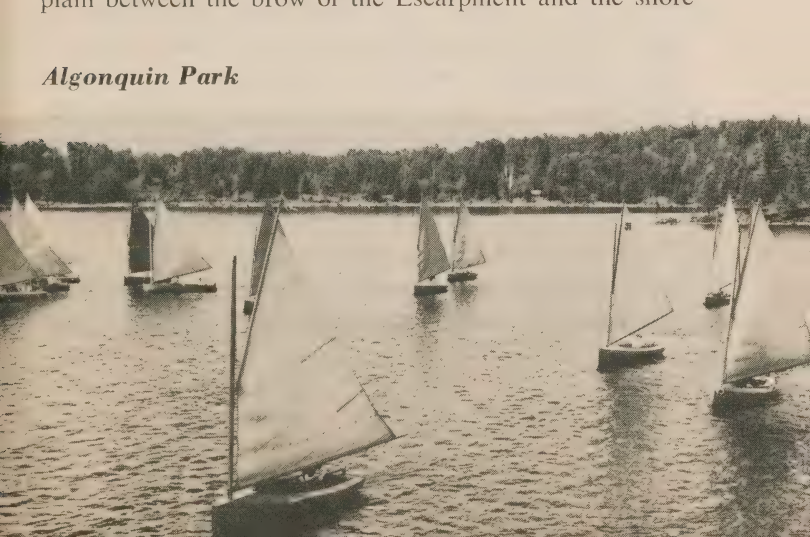
2. *South Central Ontario.* This is the area that lies between Lake Ontario and the Canadian Shield. Most of it is good agricultural land, but the growth of Toronto and the development of ports along Lake Ontario are changing its aspect into a sort of expanding suburbia for miles around the Provincial Capital. Its main communi-

ties are Toronto, Oshawa, Belleville, Peterborough, Barrie and Orillia.

3. *Highland Ontario,* once the scene of a great lumbering industry, is now largely a resort area for city dwellers. There is still agricultural activity and some lumbering, but the leading attractions are the Muskoka Lakes and Algonquin Park. The main communities, none of them very large, are Parry Sound, Gravenhurst, Bracebridge and Huntsville.

4. *The Niagara Region.* This is a small area, but it is important as a gateway to the United States and because intense economic activities are concentrated in it. It falls into two plains, a narrow lowland between Lake Ontario and the Niagara Escarpment and a wider plain between the brow of the Escarpment and the shore

Algonquin Park





Ford Factory at Windsor

of Lake Erie. In this region is one of the most famous fruit-growing districts of Canada. There is rich truck, dairy and livestock farming as well.

Niagara is the source of an immense supply of power, which feeds not only the communities of the region, but most of Southwestern Ontario to boot. The Welland Canal brings raw materials to local industries. And the great Niagara Falls have been attracting tourists for more than a century. Hamilton is a manufacturing city of more than a quarter of a million people. Other leading communities are St. Catharines, Niagara Falls, Welland, Fort Erie and Port Colborne.

5. *Southwestern Ontario.* Most of this region consists of old lake plains which border Lake Erie and Lake



Polymer Plant at Sarnia

Huron. Mixed farming, stock raising, tobacco, corn, sugar beets, vegetables for canning and dairy products are the main sources of agricultural wealth. Southwestern Ontario has more cities than any other part of the Province, but oddly enough no important one except Sarnia is located on the lake shores. Windsor, London, Kitchener and Waterloo, Sarnia, Brantford, Guelph, Galt, Stratford, Woodstock, St. Thomas and Chatham are all concentrated in this prosperous region.

6. *Western Ontario.* The sixth region in "Old" Ontario best represents the rural, agricultural Ontario of the past. It has only one comparatively small lake-port city, Owen Sound. The smaller towns, Goderich, Kincardine,

Walkerton, Hanover, Orangeville, Southampton, Wiarton and Meaford are market centres and supply points. Western Ontario begins with a high plain and long, gentle slopes lead west and southwest. The region is bounded on three sides by the Niagara Escarpment, Georgian Bay and Lake Huron. There is an important orchard area on the shores of Georgian Bay.

The seven regions in Northern Ontario are:

1. *The Near North,* a strip of lowland stretching for 300 miles from the Ottawa River to Lake Superior. It contains one-third of the total population of "New" Ontario in about 3 per cent of "New" Ontario's total area, and its over-all size of 54,000 square miles is merely one-sixth of all "New" Ontario. There are good agricultural pockets, but settlement is grouped mainly around three large cities. *North Bay,* the "Gateway to the North", on the shore of Lake Nipissing, is an important centre of transportation. Its neighbouring communities are Ferris, Sturgeon Falls, Cache Bay, Mattawa and Callander. *Sudbury,* the sixth city of Ontario and the largest in "New Ontario", calls itself the "Capital of the North". It is the nucleus of the mining field which has given Ontario one-third of its mining wealth so far. Towns which surround it are Copper Cliff, where the International Nickel Company's huge smelters are located, Coniston, Capreol and Chelmsford. *Sault Ste. Marie* is an industrial island



Manitoulin Turkey Farm

at the centre of the world's busiest waterway. The "Soo" has been a key point for three centuries and a quarter. Its canals handle more water-borne freight each year than the combined tonnage of the Suez and Panama Canals.

2. *The North Huron Islands.* Three of the large islands in the northern part of Lake Huron belong to the Province of Ontario. They are: Manitoulin, Cockburn and St. Joseph. Manitoulin, with an area of 1,073 square miles, is said to be the largest fresh-water island in the world. There are more than 100 inland lakes on it. The population, 11,000 persons, of whom 2,000 are Indians, is engaged chiefly in agriculture. Pulpwood cutting is the main activity of the Indians. Fishing for lake trout used to be an important industry, and the Ontario Government is trying to revive it. Summer resorts are being developed, largely by people from the United States.



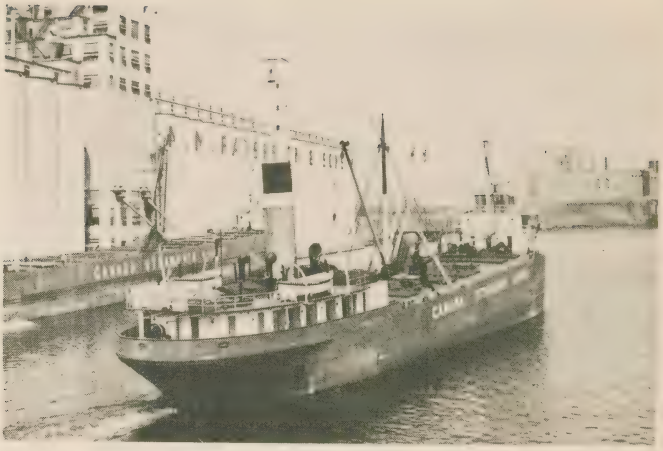
Unloading Pulpwood

Cockburn Island is heavily forested, but there is only one small village on it. St. Joseph Island has a population of about 900, two-thirds of whom are farmers.

3. *Northeastern Ontario.* This big region is wholly within the limits of two very large administrative districts, Temiskaming and Cochrane. Its economic life depends directly upon its communication lines, the Ontario Northland and the Canadian National Railways, and Highway No. 11, which runs for almost 300 miles from Cobalt to Hearst. Temiskaming, with 2,000 farms, is so far the best agricultural area in Northern Ontario. Cobalt, once a

great mining centre became almost a ghost town, but is reviving. Haileybury is the judicial centre of Temiskaming. Kirkland Lake is the largest settlement in a rich gold-mining area which extends 30 miles from Swastika to the Quebec Border. The Porcupine Mining Camp is second only to Sudbury and its gold field is the richest in Canada. Timmins, "the largest town in Canada", has resisted incorporation as a city because its nickname tickles the sense of humour of its people. Cochrane is the centre of an agricultural region, headquarters for a number of lumber and pulpwood operators and judicial centre for a district of 52,000 square miles. Kapuskasing has a huge pulp and paper mill, a busy airport and an experimental farm. Hearst is the most westerly settlement in the Great Clay Belt of Northern Ontario.

4. *Thunder Bay,* with an area of 52,471 square miles, has a population of 105,400. Two-thirds of this population is concentrated in the Twin Cities of Fort William and Port Arthur. The Lakehead is tied to both Eastern and Western Canada by the chief transportation routes of the country. During the Second World War it manufactured ships and planes. In peacetime it builds trams and buses for most Canadian cities. Most of the agricultural land in the Thunder Bay Region lies within a few miles of the Lakehead cities, except for a pocket around Nipigon, some 60 miles to the northeast, and Upsala,



Lakehead Elevators

about 70 miles northwest. There is a mining field between Long Lac and Lake Nipigon which supports more than 6,000 people. Lake Nipigon is the source of power for the Lakehead and the mining area, and the Hydro-Electric Power Commission of Ontario has increased Nipigon's water supply by diverting the Ogoki River from Hudson Bay into the St. Lawrence-Great Lakes watershed. The region has a growing forest industry and it has long been a popular resort for hunters and fishermen.

5. *Rainy River* is an elongated region of only 7,276 square miles, lying along the Minnesota Border north of Rainy River. There are several small villages but only

two towns, Fort Frances, the administrative centre, and Rainy River, a railway divisional point. There is an agricultural belt and a pulp and paper industry. Steep Rock Iron Mines Ltd. is in the region. It yields about a million and a half tons of ore every year from the bed of Steep Rock Lake which had to be drained to make the ore accessible.

6. *Kenora* has an area of 18,000 square miles, with a population of about 29,000 who live mainly between Sioux Lookout and the Manitoba Border. Kenora is the administrative and business centre. Keewatin has a large flour mill. Dryden has a pulp mill and is the centre of a thriving agricultural district. Sioux Lookout is the main supply point for the Patricia mining areas to the north. The Kenora Region lies north of the smaller Rainy River Region.

7. *Patricia,* added to Ontario in 1912, covers about 175,000 square miles. Fewer than 10,000 people live in it, and there are no communities except mining camps. It takes in nearly all of Northern Ontario beyond the reach of railway lines. The dominant activity is hunting and trapping, and most of the people are Indians. Mining camps at Red Lake and Pickle Crow were developed by airplane, canoe and dog team. Winter roads were built later. Now highways are joining these communities

to the railway. There is a hydro-electric development at Ear Falls which supplies power to Red Lake, Pickle Crow and Sioux Lookout. Patricia Region was named for Lady Patricia Ramsay, Colonel-in-Chief of the Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry. Lady Ramsay, formerly Her Royal Highness the Princess Patricia, is the daughter of the late Duke of Connaught. The Duke, a son of Queen Victoria, was Governor General of Canada when the great district which bears his daughter's name was added to Ontario.

The history of the Province of Ontario opens with the name of Samuel de Champlain, founder of New France. Champlain's career as an explorer began in 1599, when he journeyed to the West Indies with a Spanish fleet. On this voyage he learned quite a few things about the New World, including Mexico, and in 1602 he was appointed Royal Geographer of France. In 1603 Champlain visited what is now Nova Scotia. In 1608 he founded Quebec and laid the foundations of the Canada of today.

Champlain's fame as the great first Governor of New France has somewhat overshadowed his renown as an explorer. Yet, in the course of his first seven years in Quebec, he ranged far inland and gave the world a new understanding of the geography of North America.



Champlain Monument at Orillia

In 1609, Champlain ascended the Richelieu River and discovered the lake which still bears his name. But his most important discoveries were to be in the region of the Great Lakes.

Seeking a passage by water to the Far East, he sent two of his men in 1611 up the Ottawa River into the country of the Algonquins. Etienne Brulé and Nicholas de Vigneau brought back tales of a great sea lying to the northwest.

This roused Champlain's sense of adventure, and he decided to see things for himself. In 1613, he, too, jour-

neyed up the Ottawa and got as far as Alumette Island, where he learned, to his disgust, not only that Vigneau had not gone beyond that point but that there was nothing to his story of a great sea farther on.

In 1615, however, the Governor tried again. And this time he covered a great deal of ground. With him went Recollet priests. One of them, Father LeCaron, penetrated even farther west than Champlain himself, settling down in Huronia among the Indians and establishing missions which the Jesuits would continue.

Champlain followed the Ottawa and Mattawa Rivers to Lake Nipissing, descended the French River and came to Georgian Bay. There he joined a war party of Hurons and travelled by way of Lake Simcoe and the Trent Valley to Lake Ontario. The party followed the north shore of the Lake eastward to the Bay of Quinte, crossed Lake Ontario in canoes, and reached the Iroquois country in the region of Oneida, New York. There the Hurons attacked the Iroquois and were beaten off. Champlain made his way back by way of Lake Simcoe, Georgian Bay and the Ottawa and, after many difficulties, returned to Quebec in 1616.

Once the French administration had been firmly established in Quebec, the fur trade lured Frenchmen farther and farther into the heart of North America. In the course of time, forts, trading posts and missions were

established at various points. There was an important one at Fort Frontenac, now Kingston, and others were built at Toronto, Niagara and Detroit, at Michilimackinac at the entrance to Lake Michigan, at Sault Ste. Marie and even at the far end of Lake Superior, where Fort William stands today.

But there was very little settlement. Apart from the few French forts, trading posts and missions, Ontario was still a virgin wilderness when it was ceded to Britain by the Treaty of Paris in 1763.

In 1774, this vast tract of wilderness became part of the Province of Quebec, ruled from the Château St. Louis in Quebec.

A year later, the American War of Independence began. Exiled Loyalists from the Thirteen Colonies, bitter foes of the Revolution, began to move into the region. The Quebec Act perpetuated French civil law. The settlers wanted English common law and representative government. There was steady pressure on the Home Government. By the Constitutional Act of 1791, two Canadas were created: Lower Canada, east of the Ottawa River, and Upper Canada beyond.

Upper Canada adopted English law at once.

The first actual English settlement in Ontario was on the shore of the Niagara River, in 1780, when four or five families moved in and built houses for themselves.

Population Growth

By the end of 1784, 10,000 Loyalists had entered the Canadian wilderness west of Montreal. A new British colony had been founded by refugees from the South.

The first Legislature met at Newark, now Niagara-on-the-Lake, 17 September, 1792. Five years later the capital was moved to York, now Toronto.

English law and English land tenure attracted many more immigrants from the United States. By 1812, the population of Upper Canada had increased to 77,000, most of it of New England and New York origin.

Then came the War of 1812-14. When it was ended by the Treaty of Ghent, 24 December, 1814, immigration from south of the Border was never resumed on the early scale.

True, some Americans kept moving in. But the main stream of immigration was now to come from the British Isles instead. English, Scots and Irish crossed the sea in swelling numbers. By 1837, Upper Canada's population had reached 350,000. Roads were improved. Waterways were developed. York grew in population and in importance and, in 1834, was incorporated as a city with the name of Toronto. Small, scattered settlements were established in all parts of what is now Southern Ontario. But the country remained a pioneer community, ruled by a tightly-knit political oligarchy.

The Durham Report

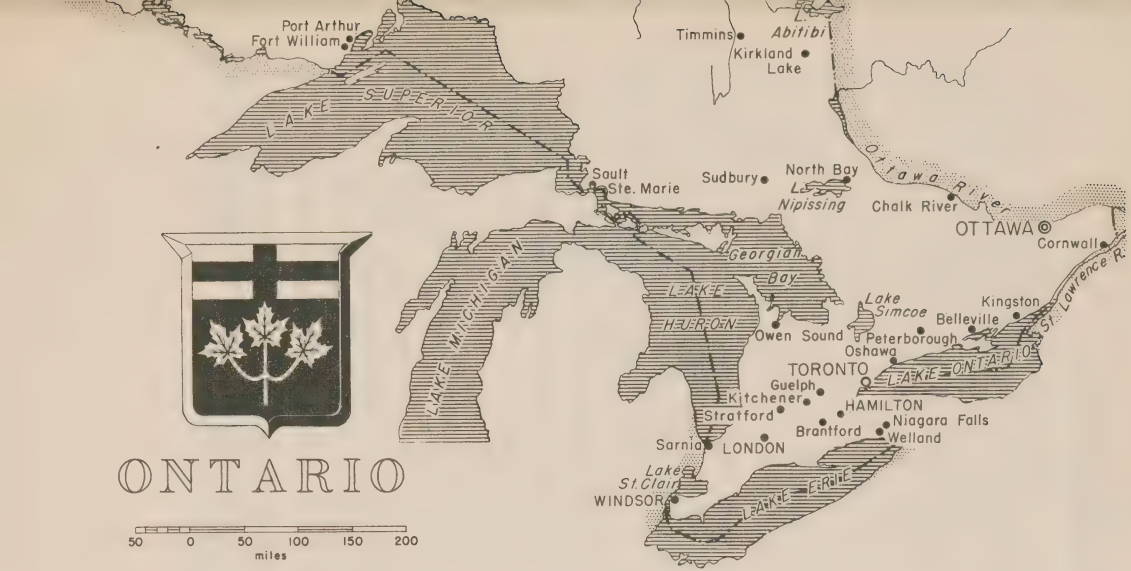
The rise of reform in England, the development of democracy in the United States and the instinct for freedom of the early settlers from the Thirteen Colonies, stimulated the formation of reform groups, who demanded responsible government. The Family Compact stood firm on its privileges. Finally, 5 December, 1837, armed rebellion broke out, led by William Lyon Mackenzie. The rebellion was over almost before it began, but the British Government realized that there must be a change.

The Earl of Durham was sent to North America as Governor-in-Chief of all five British North American provinces, and as a Special Commissioner to report on measures of reform.

Lord Durham recommended that responsible government should be granted to all the provinces, and that Upper and Lower Canada should be reunited. His report resulted in the Union of Upper and Lower Canada, 10 February, 1841. Kingston was chosen as the capital of the Province of Canada.

But the principle of responsibility of the Executive to the will of the majority in the Legislature was not recognized until Lord Elgin became Governor. A Bill was introduced to indemnify those in Lower Canada who had suffered losses during the Rebellion of 1837, including some of the rebels themselves. The proposal was


HUDSON BAY
Severn River
Winisk River
JAMES BAY
Albany River
Moosonee
Kenora
Lake


Port Arthur
Fort William
LAKE SUPERIOR
Timmins
Kirkland Lake
Abitibi
L.
Sault Ste. Marie
Sudbury
North Bay
L. Nipissing
Ottawa River
Chalk River
OTTAWA
Cornwall
St. Lawrence R.
Georgian Bay
LAKE HURON
LAKE MICHIGAN
Lake Simcoe
Kingston
Belleville
Owen Sound
Peterborough
Oshawa
LAKE ONTARIO
TORONTO
Guelph
Kitchener
Stratford
HAMILTON
Niagara Falls
Brantford
Welland
Sarnia
LONDON
Lake St. Clair
WINDSOR
LAKE ERIE
ONTARIO
50 0 50 100 150 200
miles

bitterly attacked. Lord Elgin was urged to dissolve the Legislature or refer the Bill to the British Government. But the Bill was passed with a large majority, Lord Elgin signed it 25 April, 1849, and the principle of responsible government had come to stay.

The Act of Union worked for some years, as long as Upper Canada had a minority of the population and half the representation in the Legislature. But when Lower Canada became a minority and clung to half the representation in its turn, political deadlocks developed. Other forces were at work, also, to promote a recasting of the political institutions of British North America. The development of railways and postal and telegraph services had begun to overcome the isolation of the separate provinces. The American Civil War taught political leaders that some form of union between the scattered communities was necessary if they were to protect themselves against invasion.

Representatives from the Province of Canada met representatives from Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island in Charlottetown, P.E.I., 1 September. 1864. They met again in Quebec, 10 October, and this time Newfoundland sent delegates also.

But agreement between all the Provinces proved impossible. Both Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland refused to join a new Canadian nation.

Finally, under the terms of the British North America Act, the three provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were united, 1 July, 1867, as Canada. In the new nation, Upper and Lower Canada went their separate ways once more as Ontario and Quebec, and Nova Scotia and New Brunswick retained their former entities as provinces.

Since Confederation, Ontario has had a quiet history. From the very beginning, the Province has had a Legislature of only one House. This was a new feature at the time in British constitutional organization. But today, Quebec's is the only Provincial Legislature in Canada which retains an Upper House.

The legislative power in Ontario is exercised by the Lieutenant-Governor and the unicameral Legislature of the Province. The Legislature consists of ninety members, elected by popular vote, with full authority to make any laws it sees fit within its jurisdiction under the Constitution of Canada.

Executive authority is vested in the Crown, represented by a Lieutenant-Governor, whom the Governor General of Canada in Council appoints. The Lieutenant-Governor exercises all the functions of the Crown necessary for carrying on the government of the Province. A Cabinet of Ministers chosen from the political party in

power and appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor on the recommendation of the Premier, forms the Government of the Province. Though the Lieutenant-Governor is the formal and legal executive authority of the Crown, he must act on the advice of his Ministers. The business of the Province is carried on by a number of Government Departments, each headed by a Cabinet Minister who is responsible to the Provincial Legislature.

The Province has power to constitute, organize and maintain courts of both civil and criminal jurisdiction, but can regulate the procedure in civil matters only. Judges in the Supreme and County Courts are appointed and paid by the Federal authorities. Magistrates, Justices of the Peace, Sheriffs, Crown Attorneys and Coroners are appointed and paid by the Provincial Government.

Division Courts are presided over by County Court Judges and have civil jurisdiction in money claims on contracts up to $400. County Courts have jurisdiction in contracts up to $1,200. County Court Judges, sitting in Surrogate Courts, have a wide jurisdiction in granting and revoking letters of probate of wills and letters of administration of the property of deceased persons.

The highest Provincial Court is the Supreme Court of Ontario. It consists of two branches, the High Court of Justice and the Court of Appeal. The High Court has

original jurisdiction in both civil and criminal matters. The Court of Appeal hears appeals in civil matters from Division and County Courts and the High Court of Justice, and also various appeals in criminal cases.

The Judge of the Mining Court, with powers somewhat similar to those of a Judge of the Supreme Court, is appointed and paid by the Provincial Government and has jurisdiction in matters arising under The Mining Act.

In criminal matters, Magistrates' Courts, the County Judges' Criminal Courts, the General Sessions of the Peace and the Supreme Court of Ontario all exercise original or appellate jurisdiction. Most criminal charges are tried by a magistrate or judge without a jury, but the right of the accused to elect to be tried by jury in all indictable cases is carefully preserved, and even when the accused has elected to be tried without a jury every opportunity is given him to re-elect if he so desires.

There is a steady movement of people in the Province of Ontario away from the rural areas into urban communities. Out of a total population of 4,597,542 in 1951, 1,346,443 were classed as rural, a decrease of 102,579 in ten years. Between 1941 and 1951, the urban population increased from 2,338,633 to 3,251,099, or by 912,466 persons.

The People

There are more males than females in Ontario's population, by a fraction of one per cent, but in the urban areas females predominate.

In 1950, Ontario had a lower birth rate than any other Canadian province except British Columbia. Ever since 1926, the birth rate in the Province has been below the Canadian average. The death rate, on the other hand, has been consistently above the national average throughout that period.

In 1951, English only was spoken by 89·52 per cent of Ontario's people, 1·7 per cent spoke French only, 7·8 spoke both English and French and ·94 per cent spoke neither English nor French. There were 500,598 persons who spoke a foreign language as a mother tongue. In this group, Ukrainian was the language of 73,719; German, 72,686; Polish, 58,053; Italian, 52,136, and Yiddish, 40,660.

In Ontario, 67·03 per cent of the population was of British origin in 1951. The French race constituted 10·39 per cent. Of the 477,677 people of French origin, 173,955 lived in rural areas. The greatest concentration of French stock is in Carleton, Glengarry, Prescott, Russell and Stormont counties, near Ottawa; in the south-western part of the Province in Essex County, near

Windsor, and in Northern Ontario, especially in the Sudbury and Nipissing districts. York County has 33,252.

Other racial groups who numbered more than 25,000 in 1951 were: German, 222,028; Dutch, 98,373; Ukrainian, 93,595; Polish, 89,825; Italian, 87,622; Jewish, 74,920; Scandinavian, 37,430; Finnish, 29,327; Czech and Slovak, 29,025, and Hungarian, 28,182.

Canadian-born residents of Ontario increased by 693,204 between 1941 and 1951 and constituted 81·85 per cent of the population in the latter year as against 80·64 per cent in the former year. Persons born in other British countries numbered 441,738, a decrease of 7,407 under the 1941 figure of 449,145, or 1·65 per cent. Persons born in European countries increased by 120,451, from 202,838 to 323,289.

More Ontario people belong to the United Church of Canada than to any other. In 1951, the members and adherents of that denomination numbered 1,320,366. Roman Catholics followed with 1,142,140, and Anglicans came third with 936,002. These denominations accounted for 73·92 per cent of all church memberships in the Province. Between 1941 and 1951, Roman Catholics increased by 29·44 per cent, United Church members by 23 per cent and Anglicans by 14·79 per cent.

The Schools

Much of the control over education in the Province of Ontario is delegated to local authorities, called Boards of Trustees. These Boards have general jurisdiction over the hiring of teachers, erection and maintenance of schools and the raising of local taxation for educational purposes. The provincial authorities, however, make regulations dealing with school accommodations, courses of study and text-books, training and certification of teachers, inspection of schools and distribution of provincial funds which, in 1953, totalled $78,600,000.

There are two types of elementary schools in the Province. Ordinarily, the first school to be established in any community is a non-sectarian public school. Provision is made then for separate schools which are mainly Roman Catholic. Elementary schools must teach up to the end of Grade VIII, but may go to the end of Grade X. Kindergartens exist in most of the graded schools and there are a few junior kindergartens.

Secondary schools fall into two groups, academic and vocational. In the academic group are Continuation Schools, High Schools and Collegiate Institutes. Vocational schools provide Industrial, Commercial, Home Economics and Arts Courses. Some vocational schools provide Grade XIII courses leading to university work in Commerce and Finance and in Applied Science.



Smiths Falls Public School

Provincial Technical Institutes have been established to give advanced vocational training. There is a Provincial Institute of Mining in Haileybury; a Provincial Institute of Textiles in Hamilton; a Lakehead Technical Institute in Port Arthur, which teaches mining, forestry and agriculture, and the Ryerson Polytechnical Institute in Toronto, for advanced training in several branches of industry and the applied arts.

Eight Teachers' Colleges or Normal Schools, for the training of elementary school teachers, are in operation. The College of Education in Toronto trains secondary school teachers. The School for the Blind in Brantford and the School for the Deaf in Belleville are residential institutions operated by the Department of Education.

There are eight universities, or colleges teaching at the university level, in the Province. The Provincial

Universities

University is the University of Toronto. The others are Queen's University in Kingston, the University of Western Ontario in London, McMaster University in Hamilton, the University of Ottawa and Carleton College in Ottawa, Assumption College in Windsor, and the Royal Military College in Kingston.

Some of Canada's most widely known private schools for boys and girls of secondary school age are in Ontario.

Ontario's Department of Education is headed by a Minister who has two principal officers to assist him, a Chief Director who advises him in matters of policy and a Deputy Minister who is his executive officer. Other ranking officials in the Department are the Superintendent of Elementary Education, the Superintendent of Secondary Education, the Superintendent of Professional Training and the Registrar.

The Ontario Department of Agriculture maintains the Ontario Agricultural College in Guelph and an agricultural school in Kemptville. The Provincial Government also operates the Ontario Veterinary College in Guelph. The Ontario College of Art, in Toronto, receives substantial support from the Provincial Department of Education.

Educational institutions in the Province included 5,848 elementary public schools, 1,005 separate schools

and 378 secondary schools, in 1952. There were 571,640 pupils in the public schools, 141,205 in secondary schools and 135,575 in separate schools. Auxiliary education is provided for more than 13,000 handicapped children. Correspondence courses in all courses from Grade I to Grade X are available for pupils between 6 and 21. Seven railway cars, each carrying a qualified teacher, bring education to children living in remote and sparsely settled northern areas.

More than 500 classes for adult students operate for about 14,000 students. A Community Programmes Branch assists communities in adult recreation, cultural activities and handicrafts. New Canadians are given special attention.

The people of Ontario have a lively interest in the arts. This is to be expected in a relatively old and mature province. But another factor has been the teaching of art and music in the public schools for several generations. Nearly all Ontario children have had some elementary training in music and in art appreciation. This has allowed talent to be detected and encouraged, it has deepened the aesthetic appreciation of the people in general and it provides natural audiences for capable artists.

Many secondary schools support orchestras and bands, which prepare trained performers for adult musi-

cal organizations. Several Ontario cities maintain symphony orchestras, and Toronto's is internationally known. Others have choral groups, among which the Mendelssohn Choir is world-famous.

Nearly a dozen annual musical festivals are held in the Province, the biggest being in Toronto, Ottawa, Windsor and Kitchener. They are all on a voluntary basis, sponsored by private organizations. Schools enter orchestras and choirs, music teachers send their best pupils. It has been claimed that 100,000 young people take part in these festivals every year.

The Royal Conservatory of Music in Toronto and the Western Ontario Conservatory of Music in London have university connections. They fix curricula and set examinations. The University of Toronto has a Faculty of Music, Western has a Department of Music and both confer degrees. Other conservatories are located in Hamilton, Toronto and Kitchener.

Public interest in painting is wide-spread. A good painter in Ontario can live well now from the sale of his work. In the last five years the use of artists' materials by amateurs has increased about fortyfold. Two of Canada's outstanding art galleries are in the Province, the National Gallery in Ottawa and the Art Gallery of Toronto. Ontario College of Art in Toronto is the senior art school. Queen's and Toronto Universities have



Summer Theatre

Departments of Fine Arts and Queen's runs a Summer School of Fine Arts. The Doon School, between Kitchener and Galt, is operated privately.

Regional Art Associations are multiplying. The pioneer was the Western Ontario Art Association but a new-comer, the Northern Ontario Art Association, has shown great vigour and initiative. These Associations arrange travelling exhibits, lecture tours and classes for amateurs along with other activities in support of artistic development.

Fourteen of the eighteen members of the Sculptors' Society of Canada live in Ontario. The other four are in Quebec.



Ontario Farmland

The oldest "Little Theatre" in Canada is in the Province.

Ontario had a reputation for ballet in the United States before Canada became interested. The Volkoff School of the Ballet has been sending graduates to the New York stage for nearly twenty-five years and many Broadway productions include Toronto-trained dancers.

Notwithstanding the great expansion of manufacturing in Ontario, agriculture remains a primary industry in the Province. More than 600,000 people live on 180,000 farms. Though the major part of the agricultural production is absorbed in the Province, Ontario is a big exporter of fruits, cheese and meat.

Gross agricultural production in 1952 was worth about $1·1 billion, of which cash farm income amounted

to $725 million. Field crops and livestock were raised to the value of $340 million each. Dairy products were worth $148 million; poultry and eggs, $120 million; fruits and vegetables, $55 million; tobacco, $52 million; forest products off farms, $35 million; honey and wax, $2·4 million; fur, $2 million, and maple products totalled $1·6 million.

Rural life in Ontario has been made attractive through mechanization, electrification, finer roads, improved telephone service and better and more numerous educational and recreational facilities. There are 40,277 miles of rural hydro-electric lines serving 343,537 customers. The provincial Department of Agriculture, through experimental farms, educational institutions, agronomists and organization of the labour force and of markets, develops and improves the industry scientifically.

In industry, commerce and finance, Ontario plays an important role in the economy of Canada. Expansion in recent years has been phenomenal. New capital investment in construction, machinery and equipment in 1952 was more than $2 billion, $250 million up over the previous year and 39 per cent of all such investment in Canada. Gross production in 1952 was $8,627 million. In many cases, Ontario produced more than half of the entire output of the nation. Practically all of Canada's automobiles, agricultural machinery and starch products



Cattle Judging at Fall Fair

come from the Province of Ontario, and more than half of the iron and steel products, tannery products, rubber goods, electrical apparatus and supplies, fruit and vegetable preparations, flour and feed mill products, hosiery, knitted goods and furniture.

A high percentage of this production is for export, though one-third of all Canada's buying power lies within a radius of 100 miles of Toronto..

Nowhere in Canada are natural resources more fully utilized and developed than in Ontario. Since 1891, the mines of the Province have yielded $7·5 billion worth of

minerals and mineral products. Production was worth $438 million in 1952 alone.

Extensive exploration and development in Northern and Eastern Ontario have revealed the presence of millions of tons of iron ore, and its value may yet exceed that of all precious metals.

The lumbering and forest industry is one of the biggest assets of the Province. One-seventh of the world's newsprint comes from Ontario. The value of last year's pulp and paper products was $272 million, and lumber production was worth $59 million.

Basic to all this economic activity is the fundamental resource of water-power, which supplies the energy that makes most of the other Ontario industries possible. By 1952, the Hydro-Electric Power Commission of Ontario was supplying 4,494,770 horsepower to 1,249,366 customers, an increase of 73·1 per cent over the last year of the Second World War. By 1956, the dependable peak of production will have reached 5,807,600 horsepower, an increase of 124 per cent in a little less than 11 years.

The Province is presently changing from 25-cycle to 60-cycle current.

Ontario enjoys a splendid network of transportation facilities. It is served by the great St. Lawrence-Great

Transportation

Lakes waterway, by excellent highways, by the finest railway lines in Canada and by several airlines. Total road mileage is over 80,000, exclusive of city, town and village streets. The number of registered motor vehicles is more than 1,250,000. Twelve railroads maintain more than 10,000 miles of track, over 25 per cent of all Canada's railway mileage. At least 50 licensed airports are operated. Millions of tons of cargo are handled every year on the Great Lakes, and the Welland Canal is the busiest in the world. Capital and ordinary expenditures for the construction, improvement and maintenance of highways in 1953-54 were a record $153 million. Large-scale highway construction projects already launched or approved include the Ontario portion of the Trans-Canada Highway, a $525 million divided highway from Windsor to the Quebec Border, a short cut between Toronto and Sudbury through Parry Sound, improvement of the Blue Water Highway and new trunk highways in various parts of the Province.

Some of the finest labour legislation in the free countries of both hemispheres protects Ontario's labour force of 1,900,000 from exploitation. No employer can discriminate against any person because of race, creed, colour, nationality, ancestry or place of origin. The Ontario Labour Relations Board certifies bargaining agents and gives them exclusive authority to bargain col-

lectively on behalf of employees. Except under special conditions, hours of work in any industry may not exceed 48 a week. Rigid restrictions are imposed upon conditions and hours of employment for women and girls in industry and commerce, and minimum wages for females are adjusted to levels in every area. No child under 14 may be employed in industry or commerce and no person under 16 may work during school hours without a certificate issued under the Adolescent School Attendance Act. Every employee in an industry is entitled to an annual vacation of at least one week with pay. Since 1915, more than $350 million have been paid out in workmen's compensation and medical aid. Ontario youths learn trades under an organized system of apprentice training.

Public health and social welfare receive much study and assistance in the Province. Assistance to health services was about $44 million in 1953, more than $9 for each man, woman and child. There were 184 general hospitals, 14 sanatoria and 16 mental hospitals. A mental health plan is in operation with out-patient clinics. Psychiatric wings are being built in general hospitals where short-term patients may be treated near home. An Ontario Cancer Research and Treatment Foundation has begun a broad campaign which will include construction of a Cancer Institute and the extension of cobalt bomb therapy. Consultant and laboratory services are pro-

vided in all fields of public health. Other facilities include free pre-natal medical examinations for expectant mothers, free dental and chest clinics and assistance to local health units.

Public welfare services include assistance to the unemployed, pensions to old people and to persons incapable of gainful employment and allowances to needy mothers. Persons between 65 and 70 get financial assistance if they are in need. The construction of modern homes for the aged is encouraged by a Government contribution of half the cost of construction and operation.

Toronto, the capital of Ontario, is situated on the north shore of Lake Ontario. Greater Toronto had a population of 1,117,470 in 1951 which made it the largest city in the Province and the second in Canada, next to Montreal.

It is a progressive and increasingly prosperous commercial centre, as well as a city where culture flourishes. Toronto University, which began modestly in 1827 with one college, is now one of the biggest institutions of higher learning in the British Commonwealth, with numerous faculties and more than 50 buildings. Other cultural facilities are the Royal Alexandra Theatre, Massey Hall, the Eaton Auditorium and Hart House, where theatrical and musical performances of every kind

are presented. There is a fine Art Gallery. The Royal Ontario Museum is outstanding, both in its scope and in the value of its exhibits.

Toronto has a splendid harbour, a great airport at Malton, a seaplane base on the waterfront with a combined base for seaplanes and land planes adjoining it on Toronto Island, Canada's only subway and an efficient system of surface transportation. The tallest building and the biggest hotel in the Commonwealth are both in Toronto and there are many imposing edifices such as the Provincial Parliament Buildings, the Union Station, the colleges of Toronto University and some of the bigger churches.

The Canadian National Exhibition, the Royal Winter Fair and the annual Trade Fair draw exhibitors and spectators from all over the world.

Ottawa, the capital of Canada, is situated in the northeast corner of "Old" Ontario, overlooking the Ottawa River where the Rideau and Gatineau Rivers flow into it. Its site is a beautiful one. The towered buildings of Parliament stand on a high crest which faces the Province of Quebec across the Ottawa. The Federal District Commission has beautified the city with miles of superb driveways and parks. Magnificent government buildings lend dignity to the community. The

Rideau Canal cuts right through the heart of the capital and falls into the Ottawa River between the Parliament Buildings and the imposing Château Laurier. On the banks of the Rideau River, which also flows through the town, stand Rideau Hall, the official residence of the Queen's representative in Canada, and the stately new home to house Canada's Prime Ministers. Embassies and legations, country clubs, fine churches and attractive schools add much to Ottawa's charm. There are two universities in the capital, Ottawa University and Carleton College. But, oddly enough, Ottawa has had no City Hall for years.

The National Museum of Canada, the National Gallery, the National Archives, the War Museum, the Chapel of Remembrance in the Peace Tower on Parliament Hill, the Canadian Mint, the chaste new Supreme Court Building, all these are institutions which draw thousands of Canadians every year. And visitors from abroad never tire of photographing the red-coated Royal Canadian Mounted Police who patrol Parliament Hill. Ottawa had a population of 281,908 in 1951.

Hamilton, with 259,685 people at the time of the last Census, is Ontario's third biggest city and the seventh in all Canada. It lies at the west end of Lake Ontario just below the Niagara Escarpment, which is called the

Hamilton Mountain at this point. The setting is beautiful. Well located among rich agricultural and commercial centres, it has grown steadily since its incorporation as a city in 1846. The Hamilton Market is one of the biggest and most famous in Canada. The city's iron and steel mills, implement factories and glassware plants are important. McMaster University is in Hamilton.

Windsor, directly across the Detroit River from the automobile capital of the world, began to grow with Detroit in the 19th Century. It has long been a centre of branch plants of United States businesses. It is linked to its big neighbour to the north—Windsor is actually south of Detroit—by a bridge and a tunnel. In 1935, Windsor united with the Border Cities of Walkerville, Sandwich and East Windsor. The population in 1951 was 157,672.

London was almost chosen in 1793 to be the capital of Upper Canada. It is very attractively located where two forks of the River Thames flow together. Because it is centrally located in the rich region of Southwestern Ontario, it has grown into the second most important wholesale and distributing centre in the Province. Its factories export goods to the whole world. London is the site of the University of Western Ontario. Its population in the last Census year was 121,516.



Fort Henry at Kingston

Other considerable cities, which are important manufacturing or commercial communities, are Kitchener, Brantford, Fort William, St. Catharines, Kingston, Oshawa, Sault Ste. Marie, Peterborough, Guelph, Port Arthur, Niagara Falls, Sudbury, Sarnia, Stratford, North Bay, St. Thomas and Timmins.

Ontario is rich in places, buildings and scenes which go back to the earliest days of settlement in Canada. Throughout the Province are forts, cairns and tablets which tell of things whose happening helped to make our country what it is today.

The name of the Province is of Huron-Iroquois origin. *Ontario* in their language meant *Beautiful Waters*. Great Indian nations lived, hunted and fought on the soil of Ontario. Missionaries preached the gospel patiently, first to the aborigines and then to the early white settlers. One is constantly reminded of the hoary rivalries of French, British and Americans in the early days. There are monuments to the sturdy loyalty and courage of the pioneers and to the long and sometimes bitter political squabbles from which Canada emerged a united nation.

The old Battle Line of the War of 1812-14 stretches from Windsor to the Ontario-Quebec Border and it commemorates many a Canadian hero and heroine of that strange struggle.

From Southwestern Ontario, along the north shore of Lake Ontario and on to the Ottawa River at Canada's capital, run the beautiful, strong Scottish stone houses of Ontario. They are coming to rank, in the minds of people of taste, almost with the older stone houses of Quebec. Indeed, their gracious simplicity might not be out of place in some of the homes we build today.

At Midland, in Huronia, are Fort Ste. Marie, 300 years old, and a splendid shrine to North America's first canonized saints, the Canadian Martyrs.



Deer Hunting

Historic Kingston, with its early 19th Century defences, somewhat recalls the frowning Citadels of Quebec and Halifax.

In Brantford, the home of Alexander Graham Bell, inventor of the telephone, is to be seen. In Dresden, 10 miles north of Chatham, lived and died the Rev. Josiah Henson, on whose life the famous novel, *Uncle Tom's Cabin,* was based.

There are 39 museums and art galleries to visit in the Province, and the historic sites are almost countless.

But it is not only to historians, antiquarians and researchers that Ontario appeals. Hunters and fishermen find a paradise in the northland. Boat trips through the Thousand Islands, on the Great Lakes or even off-shore from many a city and town, are restful and refreshing. Summer and winter sports are well organized in most parts of the Province.

All this is Ontario, Canada's busiest Province—a vast, growing land, where the people look to the future but remember the past, where the provincial flower is the quiet White Trillium and where the young folk share with the old a stirring pride in the Motto on Ontario's Coat of Arms:

Ut incepit fidelis sic permanet.
Loyal she began, loyal she remains.

Illustrations courtesy of the Ontario Department of Travel and Publicity.

HOW TO USE THIS PAMPHLET

ONTARIO

This is Article No. 11 in the CITIZENSHIP SERIES of CURRENT AFFAIRS pamphlets.

Read this pamphlet carefully, make notes and follow a definite plan in presenting your material in the Discussion Hour.

The headings in the pamphlet are arranged so that you can present your material in an orderly manner.

Place-names can be found on the accompanying map which should be referred to frequently so as to familiarize the group with the geography of the Province.

The following questions are suggested for discussion at the end of the presentation of your material:

1. What are the chief characteristics of "Old" and "New" Ontario?
2. How did democratic institutions develop in Ontario before Confederation (1867)?
3. To what extent do the resources of Ontario contribute to the wealth of the whole country?
4. How does the distribution of population in Ontario by racial origin compare with that in other provinces?

Do not forget to make a summary of the discussion in the last five minutes of the hour.

EDMOND CLOUTIER, C.M.G., O.A., D.S.P.
QUEEN'S PRINTER AND CONTROLLER OF STATIONERY, OTTAWA, 1954


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Citizenship

No. 12

FOR THE CANADIAN FORCES

Government
Publications

The twelfth of a series of pamphlets on Canadian Citizenship, prepared especially for the Armed Forces by the Bureau of Current Affairs.

The Province of Manitoba

By A. M. Pratt

No. 12

BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, CANADA

Introduction

In a foreword to the first of the regular series of *Current Affairs* pamphlets issued in October, 1951, the Minister of National Defence stated that service personnel "should know as much as possible about Canada . . .".

Accordingly, the Bureau of Current Affairs has initiated a series of citizenship pamphlets. In this series five have been published to date dealing with the following topics:—

The Canadian Constitution
How Parliament Works
Local Government
The Serviceman and His Vote
The Public Service of Canada.

We are now issuing citizenship pamphlets which tell about the ten provinces of Canada and Yukon and the Northwest Territories. This material will supplement the first five pamphlets.

We sincerely hope that service personnel will obtain a broader understanding and deeper appreciation of their country from a study and discussion of this material.

HARRY R. LOW
Director, Bureau of Current Affairs

The Province of Manitoba

By A. M. Pratt *

THE PROVINCE OF MANITOBA lies at the heart of the Northland of the New World. Its location and its shape have suggested the designation, "The Keystone Province", a title which may indicate the nature of its historic role in the building of Canada from coast to coast, and also its present significance in our economic structure. In this little book we hope to discuss briefly both these phases of its importance in the history of our nation.

The Province lies between the 49th and the 60th parallels. It is bounded on the south by 300 miles of the International Boundary. To the west an interprovincial boundary, 750 miles long, separates it from the Province of Saskatchewan. Northward lie the Northwest Territories and eastward, to the north of the Ontario boundary, a coast line of about 400 miles is washed by the waters of Hudson Bay.

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* A. M. Pratt is an official of the Manitoba Department of Education and editor of the *Manitoba School Journal.*

Physical Features

The present boundaries of Manitoba have been reached by two extensions of its area. The first of these, made in 1881, extended the "postage stamp province" of 1870 westward to the present boundary of Saskatchewan and north to 52° 50′. In 1912, a second extension carried the provincial limits north to the 60th degree and northeast to the shores of the Bay.

Of the present area of Manitoba (246,512 square miles), more than three-fifths of the bed-rock is Precambrian, that is it consists of some of the oldest rocks which appear in the earth's crust. The rocks were formed so early in our planet's geological history that they contain no fossil remains of primitive forms of life; their formation predates the appearance of life even in its most rudimentary forms. Draw a line on your map of Manitoba from a point just west of the border of Ontario on the International Boundary northwest through Lake Winnipeg to the Nelson River, then west to Saskatchewan. All the land and water east and north of this line, with the exception of a limited area in the vicinity of Churchill and Port Nelson, is in the Precambrian Zone. It is part of the Laurentian Shield, a great horseshoe-shaped mass of igneous rock which lies around Hudson Bay. A Canadian poet, E. J. Pratt, has pictured this Shield as a vast reptile lying asleep or dead, its tail in Labrador, its body curled around the Bay, its neck stretched past the Great Bear Lake and its head

hidden in the Arctic Seas. In his *Towards the Last Spike,* which describes in epic form the building of our first transcontinental railway, he describes this great mass of rock:

This folded reptile was asleep or dead;
So motionless, she seemed stone dead—just seemed;
She was too old for death, too old for life,
For as if jealous of all living forms
She had lain there before bivalves began
To catacomb their shells on western mountains.
Somewhere within this life-death zone she sprawled,
Torpid upon a rock-and-mineral mattress.
Ice-ages had passed by her and over her,
But these, for all their motion had but sheared
Her spotty carboniferous hair or made
Her ridges stand out like the spikes of molochs.
Her back grown stronger every million years,
She had shed water by the longer rivers
To Hudson Bay and by the shorter streams
To the great basins to the south, had filled
Them up, would keep them filled until the end
Of Time.

The poet has referred to the passing of the great ice-sheets over this Laurentian Shield. You may see the evidence of that passing in the bed-rock surface, hummocky with

rounded hills and ridges of rock, alternating with basin-like depressions. In those depressions you may find accumulations of glacial drift scoured by the ice-mass and transported thither. You may note, too, the comparatively even elevation of the region. The whole land has been scraped by the movement of the ice-sheets, thousands of feet thick. The oldest rocks of the earth's crust have been bared. There they lie today, unyielding and barren.

But in those same rocks you may find deep veins of valuable mineral ores. Those metalliferous veins, formed at high temperatures in the Precambrian rocks, are of increasing importance in the economic life of the Province of Manitoba.

South and west of the line you have drawn lie the prairies. Here the passing of the massive ice-sheets which denuded the rocks of the Shield brought boulder-till or, as it is sometimes called, glacial drift, and deposited it as a covering of varying thickness over the rocks of the first and second Prairie Levels. The boulder-till, consisting of mixed material of stones, sand and clay, was deposited as the ice melted. It became what the soils scientist calls the "soil parent material" which later became the rich soils of the prairies.

Ancient Lakes

There is another feature of the topography of Manitoba which is of great importance to our economy. The retreat of the ice-sheets was slow and halting. The ice at the southern extremities of the vast glacier melted long before the natural drainage to the north was cleared. A great unmelted ice-barrier held back vast stretches of water in glacial Lake Souris and the even more extensive glacial Lake Agassiz. Today the level beds of those ancient lakes with their lacustrine deposits form some of the richest agricultural districts of the Province.

Lake Agassiz, which covered a large area of eastern Manitoba and extended far south of the International Boundary, was bounded on the west by a great escarpment, the eastern edge of the second Prairie Level. By elevations rising abruptly from the plains you may trace this escarpment through the Turtle Mountains in the southwest to the Riding, Duck and Porcupine Mountains to the southern edge of the Shield. West of these heights lies the more rolling country of the Second Level, with its wide, deep-cut river valleys, once carved out by the flow of great waters, now shrunk to placid streams which meander pleasantly between the wooded slopes of the beds they used to fill.

The great catch-basin of the rivers of Manitoba, indeed of all the great river-systems of the Prairie Regions,

is Lake Winnipeg. From the south comes the Red whose headwaters lie far beyond the Border. At Winnipeg, the historic "Forks", it is joined by the Assiniboine which, with its tributaries, drains almost all the arable lands of the south and west of the Province. Into the northern reaches of the Lake pour the waters of the mighty Saskatchewan drawn from the foothills of the Rockies. By a series of smaller lakes the waters of Lake Winnipeg pass into the turbulent Nelson River, which empties into the Bay near historic York Factory. The early history of Manitoba, indeed the whole story of the exploration and first settlement of the West, is intimately associated with these waterways.

The climate of Manitoba is continental, ranging from 40° F. below zero in the depth of winter to 90° F. in the summer months. The dryness of the air in the long winter season helps to mitigate the effects of the extreme cold, and the brilliant sunshine all the year round lends a zest to living in the clear, bracing air. The rainfall is heaviest in the growing season and the seasonal precipitation is comparatively dependable, periods of severe drought being exceptional in this Province.

The following table shows the normal average temperature, precipitation and hours of sunshine:

Month	*Average Temperature (in Degrees F.)*	*Precipitation in Inches*	*Hours of Sunshine*
January	–2·3	0·89	97·2
February	1·7	0·83	126·5
March	16·1	1·12	159·2
April	37·7	1·29	205·6
May	51·9	2·14	242·8
June	61·9	3·12	247·1
July	67·0	2·87	299·4
August	64·3	2·52	263·6
September	54·3	2·18	177·7
October	41·4	1·41	136·7
November	22·0	1·08	82·9
December	6·5	0·92	75·3

The nomadic tribes of Indians who roamed the plains of North America early lost any form of tribal organization. Usually tribes are bound together by a common culture, a common language and by united action in relation to their neighbours. But in what is now Canada, particularly upon the western plains, head chiefs were rare and the bands were often completely independent of their kin. Classified by culture areas, the Plains Tribes include members of several great Indian families: the Blackfoot (Blackfoot proper, Piegan and Blood); the

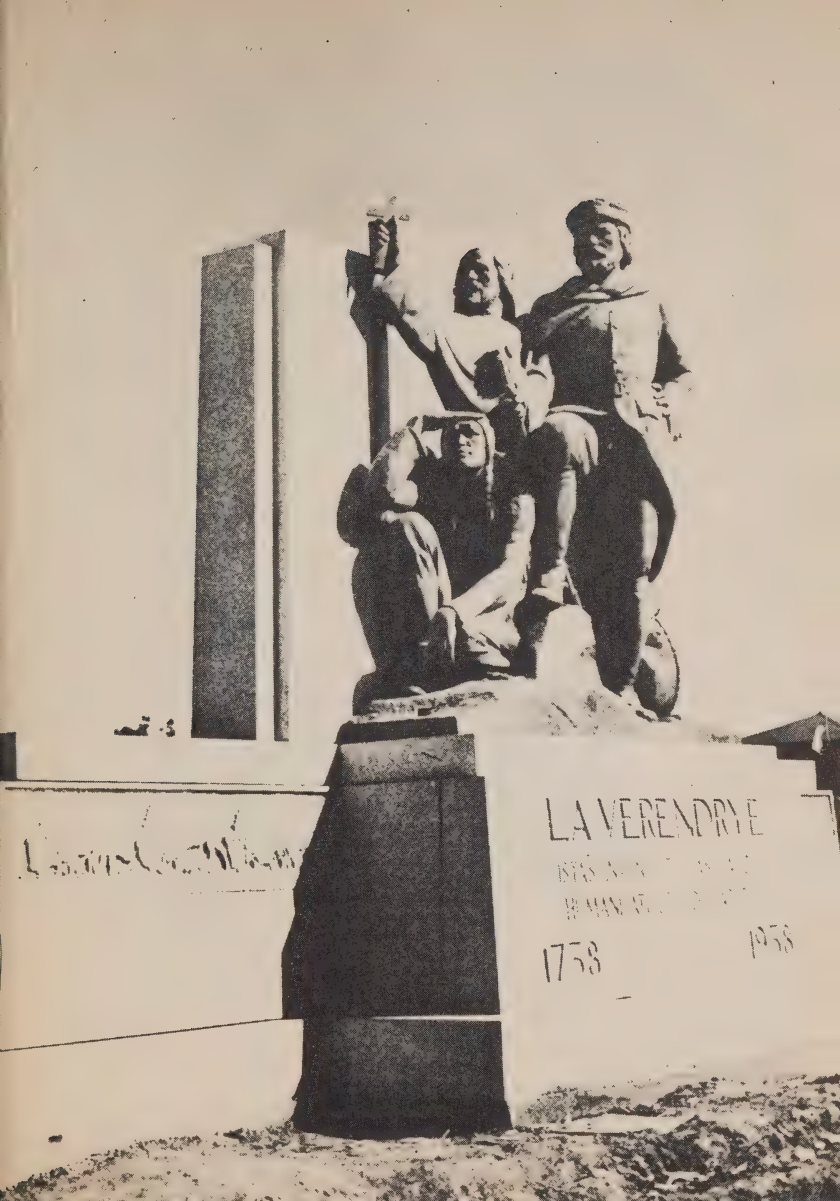
Sarcee; the Assiniboines or Stonies; and a branch of the Cree. In Manitoba we have also the Eskimos on the shores of the Bay, and the Chipewyans of the Athabascan Family north of the Churchill River. There are also several settlements of the Sioux Family driven northward from the Dakotas in the early years of white settlement. Until the arrival of the whites these tribes had followed their own way of life with few signs of progress towards what we call civilization.

The first white post established in what is now Manitoba was Port Nelson (1682) at the mouth of the Nelson River. This post was soon transferred to the narrow tongue of land which separates the Nelson from the Hayes and, as York Factory, became the headquarters of the territory controlled by the Hudson's Bay Company.

The first white man to see the Canadian prairies was Henry Kelsey who in his early twenties left York Factory in 1690 and reached the neighbourhood of what is now the town of Swan River. By way of the rivers Kelsey had arrived at the northern end of Lake Winnipeg and had shown to the fur-traders from the Bay one route to the western plains.

Some forty years later, Pierre Gaultier de la Vérendrye arrived by way of the Lake of the Woods and the

La Vérendrye Monument


LA VERENDRYE
1738
1938

Winnipeg River at the southern extremity of the Lake and built there Fort Maurepas, the first of a string of forts established by the Frenchman from the Saint Lawrence along the course of the Red and the Assini-



First Church in the West

boine Rivers. Of these the most important was Fort Rouge at the Forks, the junction of the two great streams —the site of the present City of Winnipeg.

By the end of the eighteenth century, three routes to the prairies had been opened by the fur-traders: one from the Bay by way of the Hayes River with a portage to the Nelson, thence south via the Lake and up the Red River, and two from the Lake of the Woods by way either of the Winnipeg River and up the Red, or by way of the Roseau River, along the "War Road of the Sioux" near the International Boundary and then down the Red to the Forks.

Rivalry between the traders from Canada and those from the Bay led to the first great conflict on the plains: the half-century-long struggle between the Hudson's Bay Company and the Nor'westers which ended in 1821 by the merging of the rival companies. In the course of that struggle the infant settlement in 1812 of Scotch crofters on the banks of the Red suffered severe hardships. The Red River Colony, however, survived its early difficulties, and to the Selkirk Settlers must go the honour of having established the first permanent agricultural settlement in the Canadian West.

Under the energetic direction of a number of capable administrators, outstanding amongst whom was Governor George Simpson (later Sir George Simpson), the



Lower Fort Garry

"Emperor of the Fur Trade", the Hudson's Bay Company vastly extended its trading operations over the greater part of what is now Western Canada and the Pacific Northwest of the United States. For over four decades Simpson, as Governor-in-Chief of Rupert's Land, with authority over all the Hudson's Bay Territories for judicial and other purposes, was the director of the economic life of a trading empire extending from the Great Lakes to the Pacific. During his long term of office, Sir George Simpson contributed largely to the establishment of a tradition of regulated trading based on the recognition of mutual rights. The fur-traders of the Canadian

West had found a vast wilderness; they had planted and maintained long chains of outposts; they had left a land ready for peaceful settlement.

But, by the middle of the nineteenth century, the only permanent settlement with sufficient of a resident population to have any local institutions of self-government was the Municipal District of Assiniboia. This district was shaped like a large irregular T and extended four miles inland from each bank of the Red and the Assiniboine along distances of fifty miles from the Forks. It was administered by a Council consisting of the Governor and twelve members who were chosen by him. By virtue of their position and influence in the settlement these men exercised considerable powers, but until the year 1869, the supreme authority lay with the Hudson's Bay Company.

Dramatic events marked the creation of the Province of Manitoba. One of the first acts of the new Dominion of Canada had been to enter into negotiations with the Hudson's Bay Company for the purchase of its territorial rights in the West. The transfer had been arranged through the British Government but before it could be completed the settlement in the Red River was in turmoil. In the year 1869 there was no legal authority in the District of Assiniboia. The Hudson's Bay Company had surrendered its authority; the Canadian Govern-

ment at Ottawa had not completed the transfer; and the Imperial Parliament at Westminster had no accredited authority with the region. Louis Riel, then twenty-five years' old, set up a provisional government and occupied Fort Garry.

The new Canadian Government reacted strongly. A force under Colonel Wolseley was dispatched hurriedly to the Red River. The force arrived via the Winnipeg and Red Rivers in August, 1870, and the provisional government collapsed, Riel fleeing to the States. The Manitoba Act creating the Province of Manitoba re-established legal jurisdiction and the first Lieutenant-Governor, Adams George Archibald, arrived at Fort Garry.

The First Legislature of the Province of Manitoba met on March 15, 1871, and immediately faced the task of creating judicial and administrative machinery within its jurisdiction. Before its prorogation on May 3rd, it had passed forty-three bills almost all of which provided for the establishment and operation of the governmental services of a modern state. "We challenge the world to produce an instance where such an amount of work in any country has crowned the annals of a single year" proudly claimed an editorial in *The Manitoban.*

At the time of its creation, the Province of Manitoba had a total population of under 12,000, five-sixths

of whom were of mixed white and Indian blood. The area of settlement was limited to the lands adjacent to the rivers and the old District of Assiniboia with a few outlying posts such as that at Fort la Reine, the modern Portage la Prairie. But the westward movement across the continent had brought the frontier of settlement to the Red River Valley and the pressure from the South became increasingly apparent. The new Dominion hastened its endeavours to establish communications with its western province and a short-lived all-Canadian wagon-road and water route, to compete with the cart-trails from Minnesota, was created to link Port Arthur with Fort Garry. Known at the Dawson Route, it was begun in 1869 and maintained until 1876.

Canada's first transcontinental railway, the Canadian Pacific, was completed in 1885, linking Manitoba with both East and West. The flood of immigration, which had begun with a trickle of settlers in the '70s, increased to a great wave towards the end of the century and the Province grew rapidly. In 1891, it had a population of about 150,000 people. By 1901, this had increased to about a quarter of a million.

Settlement had been made largely on the group principle, particularly the settlement of immigrants of non-British stock. A large group of Icelanders had established a new home on the western shore of Lake Win-

nipeg, where they could combine farming with fishing. Mennonites of mixed racial origins but of a common religious faith had been settled in the southern portion of the Province, and from Steinbach to Morden these excellent farmers had proved that the open prairie could be broken into prosperous farm lands. To the northwest, Ukrainian, Polish and German groups had opened the way for the great wave of Central European settlement which marked the opening of the twentieth century.

Meanwhile, troubles had arisen in the Province of Manitoba—troubles involving the jurisdiction of the Dominion and the question of provincial rights. The British North America Act, under which the provinces had entered Confederation, was very definite in its allocation of powers to Parliament and to the provincial legislatures. But the situation changed as years went by. New problems arose; and conflicting interpretations of the terms of the Act led to serious Dominion-Provincial difficulties, requiring a high degree of statesmanship to settle without danger to the future of Canada as a united nation.

The first serious issue was over the monopoly granted by the Dominion to the Canadian Pacific Railway. The Legislature of Manitoba did its utmost to break this monopoly by chartering railway companies in defiance of the C.P.R. charter. The Dominion Government just

as promptly disallowed the legislation. Eventually the Province succeeded in its efforts and Manitoba was adequately supplied with rail transportation.

A more threatening issue arose over education—a strictly provincial concern under the Act. The Manitoba Schools Act of 1890 abolished the system of Public Separate Schools set up on the Quebec model in 1871. The Catholic minority claimed protection under the BNA Act. After a protracted struggle, which at one time led to open defiance of the Parliament of Canada by the Legislature of Manitoba, the "Manitoba School Question" was settled. The provincial statute was upheld by a newly-elected Dominion Government under Sir Wilfrid Laurier; and the *public* school system of Manitoba became non-denominational, with *private* schools operating mainly under the auspices of the churches.

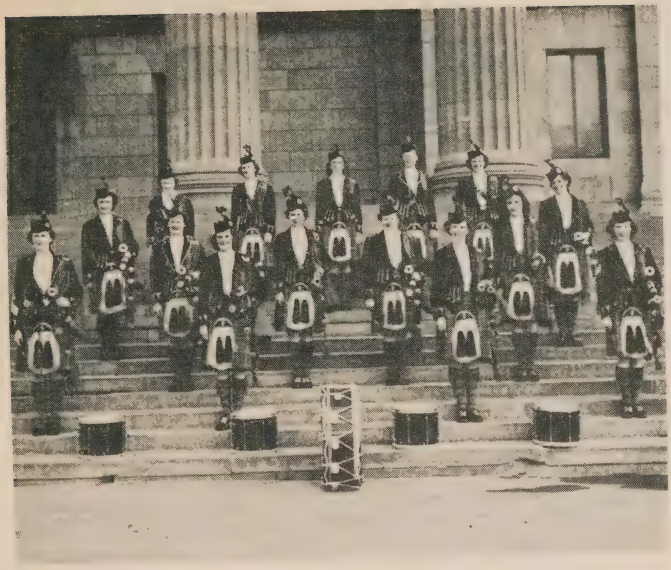
The Province suffered heavily during the financial depression of the '30s. Particularly hard hit were the agricultural industries of the southwest, where drought combined with financial stringency to bring the economic life of the region almost to a standstill. A strong representation was made to the Royal Commission on Dominion-Provincial Relationships (the Rowell-Sirois Commission), specifically requesting Dominion financial aid to enable Manitoba to maintain her social services (in-

cluding education) at a level comparable to that of the provinces less affected by the economic depression. Financial adjustments made subsequent to the Second World War have helped Manitoba to regain financial stability.

The 1951 Census shows the population of Manitoba as 776,541, of whom 78·3 per cent are listed as of British origin. As this figure, however, includes all persons born in Canada, it does not indicate the diversity of the racial origins of the people of the Province.

Amongst the oldest families in the Province are the descendants of those who came to Manitoba before Confederation, largely English, Scotch, French, and Métis (a general term comprising those of mixed white and Indian blood). Other early arrivals were those from other provinces of Canada, particularly Ontario and the Maritimes. With them came a large influx of settlers from the British Isles, the largest single group being English. French settlers from Quebec added to the predominantly French population of certain parts of the Province, notably the east bank of the Red River from St. Boniface to the Boundary.

Amongst the Europeans of non-British origin, the Icelanders have played an important part in the economic and cultural life of the Province. They are shown



Girls' Pipe Band

in the census figures, with the Danish, Norwegians and Swedes, as Scandinavian. The Mennonites, a religious community established by a sixteenth-century preacher, Menno Simons, came northward from the States in 1786 and developed a rich agricultural region in Southern Manitoba. They are not an ethnic group but comprise families of Dutch, Swiss, French, German and Russian origin. They are not shown separately in the Census.

Ethnic Groups

The largest Central European group in Manitoba is Ukrainian. In the 'nineties, the Canadian offer of 160 acres of free, fertile land and the religious and political freedom to be found here, attracted thousands of families of Ukrainians from Galicia, Bukowina, Austria, Rumania, Hungary and Russia. These were variously registered in the official statistics of the time, the designation Ukrainian not being generally recognized until after the First World War. The Ukrainian settlements predominate in the northwest of the Province, in the Interlake district, northwest from Winnipeg to Lac du Bonnet, in the east near Whitemouth and in the southeast in the Vita district.

Other large groups of European origin in Manitoba are the German, the Dutch and the Polish. Many of the families classified in the first two groups derive from the earliest days of permanent settlement in Upper Canada, when United Empire Loyalists came to what is now Ontario from the fledgling United States. The Poles have recently been strongly reinforced by immigration subsequent to the Second World War.



Curling

The racial origins of the most numerous ethnic groups in Manitoba are shown in the 1951 Census as:

British Isles, (including English, Scottish, Irish and Welsh)	362,550
Ukrainian	98,753
French	66,020
German	54,251
Netherlands	42,341
Polish	37,933
Scandinavian	32,921

The total population of the Province in 1951 was 776,541, an increase of 50,000 in the last ten years.

Provincial Government

Manitoba, like the other provinces of Canada, has exclusive legislative power in relation to certain classes of jurisdiction not subject to the legislative authority of the Parliament of Canada. These powers were explicitly stated in the British North America Act. Amongst the more general Classes of Subjects are matters relating to Direct Taxation and the Borrowing of Money; the Appointment and Payment of Provincial Offices; Public Lands; Prisons; Hospitals; Municipal Institutions; Licences; Local Works; Marriage; and Property and Civil Rights. Also specifically allotted to the Provincial Legislatures is Education, with Agriculture and Immigration shared between the provinces and the Central Government under certain conditions. Questions as to whether provincial enactments are within the powers of the provincial legislatures may be referred to the courts. Provincial legislation which is considered to be opposed to the interests of the Dominion may be disallowed by the Federal authority though nowadays this is rarely done. Manitoba is represented in the Canadian House of Commons by 16 members, and in the Senate by 6 members.

Manitoba has a single chamber Legislature of 57 members. The present Lieutenant-Governor is the Hon. J. S. McDiarmid, who assumed office on August 1st, 1953. The Executive Council consists of the Ministers

of the various departments headed by the Premier. The present Premier of Manitoba is the Hon. Douglas L. Campbell, who took office November 7th, 1948.

Local administration in Manitoba is carried out by the Municipal Councils. Rural municipalities in the Province vary in size from four townships (a township is six miles square) to 22 townships. Cities and incorporated towns and villages are ranked as municipalities. The administration is carried on by the Mayor (or in the case of rural municipalities, the Reeve) and the Council, all locally elected. The Municipal Act defines the powers and duties of municipalities in the Province.

In the Unorganized Territory of the Province, i.e., that area which is not organized into municipalities, there are eleven Local Government Districts. For the conduct of certain public business the Provincial Legislature has created a number of Commissions, whose functions may be advisory, supervisory or operational. The most important of the second group is the Municipal and Public Utility Board which has a wide range of supervisory activities, mainly concerned with the financial operations of local elective bodies. In the third group, the major Commissions are those which operate the Manitoba Government Telephones and the rapidly expanding Manitoba Hydro-Electric and Power systems.


Seal River
Churchill
Churchill River
York Factory
Nelson River
Hayes River
Nelson House
Flin Flon


The Pas
Lake Winnipegosis
LAKE WINNIPEG
Swan River
Dauphin
Lake Manitoba
Neepawa
Assiniboine River
Portage la Prairie
WINNIPEG
St. Boniface
Brandon
Souris
Red R.
Emerson
MANITOBA
50 0 50 100 150
miles

County Councils

In the early years of the Province, various attempts were made to devise some machinery to provide means for effective co-operation between adjoining municipalities. The first of these was the provision for the establishment of County Councils, each with jurisdiction over the several municipalities which would comprise the County. This measure, passed in 1883, was repealed in the following year after a vigorous protest by the municipalities against "upper chambers" and "fifth wheels". A new scheme divided the infant Province into three Judicial Districts (Eastern, Central and Western), each with a Judicial District Board to carry out the duties previously assigned to the County Councils. This scheme also met with strong opposition, the chief arguments against it being that it was complex and expensive and that there was a serious danger of ultimate centralization with the consequent loss of municipal independence. The Boards were abolished in 1886, such responsibilities as they had assumed being transferred to an officer of the Provincial Government, the Municipal Commissioner. This office was abolished in 1953.

Of late years, some pressure has developed towards the creation of Greater Municipalities to include several of the existing administrative units. The Alberta movement in this direction is being watched with close interest, but so far no definite action has been taken in Manitoba.

The existing organization for local government purposes is:

Cities	4
Incorporated Towns	34
Incorporated Villages	38
Rural Municipalities	114
Local Government Districts	11

One of the first Acts of the First Legislature of Manitoba in 1871 was an act to establish a system of education in the Province. The Separate School system, under which both Catholic and Protestant schools were state-supported, was abolished in 1890, when all public schools were made non-sectarian.

The schools are administered by local school boards elected in the School Districts. Since the inception of the Public School system in Manitoba, 2,330 school districts have been organized. Some of these have since combined into Consolidated School Districts, some are no longer operative owing to an insufficient number of pupils. In recent years there has arisen pressure towards the formation of larger units of school administration, in which all the urban and rural schools in an area would be generally administered by an Area Board, with the local boards retained for local purposes only; but so

far only one School Area (Dauphin-Ochre) has been organized. This Area comprises all the schools of two rural municipalities and the Town of Dauphin.

The schools are financed by government grants and by local levies on real estate. There is a guaranteed support of $2,200 per teacher. This support is raised by a levy of 7 mills on the balanced assessment of all the real property within the municipality, with the Department of Education making up the difference between the product of this levy and the sum of $2,200. Additional costs are raised by the School District by a levy. There are extra provincial grants for secondary and technical education and for transportation in Consolidated School Districts and School Areas.

Programs of studies, drawn up by the Department of Education, give outlines of all the courses in all grades. In the elementary school, grades I-VI, the courses are general in nature and are designed to give the pupils mastery over the tools of learning. In the junior high school grades, VII-IX, the program is still a general one but options are introduced, designed to reveal special interests and aptitudes. The senior high schools may offer one or more of five courses: General, Industrial, Agricultural, Commercial and Home Economics. Outside

Winnipeg No. 1, there are at present twelve Composite High Schools, offering two or more of these courses; Dauphin-Ochre has all five of the courses in operation.

Teachers are trained at the residential Provincial Normal School at Tuxedo, a suburb of Winnipeg; at the Faculty of Education of the University of Manitoba at Fort Garry, and at Brandon College. Grade XII standing is required for entrance to Normal. Students with 2nd or 3rd year University may attend Faculty courses leading to a Licentiate or Bachelor of Pedagogy respectively. Degree students may take the Faculty course leading to a B. Ped. (Hons.).

The teaching certificates are Professional First Class (A or B), the Collegiate Certificate and the Principal's Certificate. There are also Specialist Certificates for technical subjects.

The Manitoba Technical Institute offers day and evening classes in a wide range of technical and vocational subjects. These courses are of six months' to two years' duration. There is special provision for apprenticeship and pre-apprenticeship training; also for the vocational training of the unemployed. At the secondary school level, the Winnipeg Technical-Vocational High Schools will accommodate 1,500 students. These may take courses in any of thirteen "families of occupations", as well as the non-technical subjects of the secondary course.

Composite High Schools and Evening Classes offer vocational training in Winnipeg and in other urban centres.

The University was established in 1877 as an examining and degree-conferring body, all instruction being given in various denominational colleges. In 1904, the University itself began to offer courses in Arts and Science. Subsequent extension of the courses provided led to a full university program with faculties in all the major fields of learning: Arts and Science; Engineering and Architecture; Education; Medicine; Agriculture and Home Economics, and Law; with Schools of Music, Commerce, Social Work, Fine Arts and Nursing Education. There is also a Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, and a Department of Extension.

The University has six affiliated colleges: St. Boniface, St. John's, United, St. Paul's, Brandon and the Manitoba Law School.

The University is administered by a Board of Governors, of whom certain members are ex-officio, some are nominated by the government, and others are elected by the graduates. Academic control is vested in the Senate of the University.

Music, particularly musical performance, rightly occupies first place in any summary of the arts in Mani-

toba. The musical festivals which are held annually at many points in the Province have done much to develop first-rate playing of instrumental music and a noteworthy degree of talent amongst the vocalists. The Manitoba Musical Competition Festival, which began in Winnipeg in 1919 with 274 entries and lasted four days, had for its 35th annual festival, held in 1953, an entry list of 2,143, *representing 21,000 separate competitors.* Many of the young people competing in these annual events have since gained international fame.

The Royal Winnipeg Ballet of Canada is Manitoba's most recent and best-known contribution to the national arts. Since its public début in 1940 as a ballet company, the Winnipeg group has achieved an impressive artistic success. Since 1945, the company has made several tours winning wide-spread acclaim. In February 1953, the Winnipeg Ballet was accorded by Her Majesty the Queen the title of "Royal".

There is considerable activity in the Province on the part of local drama clubs and societies; and drama festivals, preliminary to the Dominion Drama Festival, are well supported. The Women's Institutes are very active in promoting theatrical activities in rural Manitoba, and in Winnipeg the Little Theatre and the French Cercle Molière have stimulated interest in dramatic art.

Handicrafts

The former Winnipeg School of Art is now a part of the University of Manitoba. The Winnipeg Art Gallery, with which the School was once associated, is housed in the Civic Auditorium. The Manitoba Society of Artists and the School of Art both hold annual exhibitions in the Gallery.

The Manitoba Branch of the Canadian Handicrafts Guild is very active, particularly in fostering mutual appreciation, co-operation and unity of spirit among the diverse racial groups that comprise the population of Manitoba. As one member of the Branch told the Massey Commission: "By constantly bringing these people together through exhibits and demonstrations of crafts during the last twenty years, the Manitoba Branch of the Guild has promoted better understanding and more good will than any other organization could possibly have done."

The outstanding novelists of Manitoba have been of the "regional" school, their work being confined largely to the prairie scene. Of these the greatest is Frederick Philip Grove. Other writers whose work describes life on the prairies, without, however, the vital power of Grove, are Ralph Connor, Nellie McClung and Arthur Stringer. Amongst the more recent novelists of this school, Martha Ostenso is the most widely read.



Handicrafts

There is considerable interest in Manitoba in the writing of poetry but few Manitoba poets have succeeded in catching the attention of the literary world. Roy Daniells, a scholarly poet, at one time professor of English at the University of Manitoba, is probably the best known. Another Manitoba author-professor is Paul Hiebert whose satire, *Sarah Binks,* has achieved an outstanding success.

The greatest natural resource of the prairies is the top six inches of the soil—that has been said often, and,



Harvesting

despite the growing importance of our mineral deposits, it is still true for Manitoba. The foundation of the agricultural wealth of the Province is the fertility of the soils of the grassland region, the black earths, the northern black earths and the dark-brown steppe transitional black earths which cover the basins of the Red and the Assiniboine Rivers. In the Interlake district and west of the lakes, the soils are of the type known as grey-wooded with a high concentration of lime. The land area of Manitoba is approximately 148 million acres but of this only 7¾ million acres (roughly one-twentieth) is under the plough. This cultivated district, however, includes some of the finest grain-growing land in the world, and the varying climatic conditions, the temperature and rainfall and the length of the growing season have helped considerably in the diversification of agriculture in different parts of the Province.

East, north-east and north of the farm lands of Manitoba the plains merge imperceptibly into the Precambrian Shield, with its rougher surface, its numerous glaciated outcrops of the world's oldest rocks, its rapidly-flowing rivers, and its innumerable depressions occupied by shallow lakes and muskegs.

More than three-fifths of Manitoba is underlain by these ancient rocks. The greater mass is made up of granite, granite-gneiss and other granitic rocks, usually eroded and exposed. The mineral deposits of the region are found in volcanic and associated rocks, in sedimentary gneisses, and in intrusive bodies of quartz.

The deposits in the Manitoba portion of the Shield of most economic importance so far discovered, are sulphide bodies carrying copper and zinc, and some precious metals found at considerable depth. It is thought that the region may show commercial occurrences of tin, tungsten, molybdenum, nickel, copper, gold, zinc, the platinum group and arsenic. Prospectors are active in Manitoba and striking new developments may be expected.

Manitoba, usually looked upon as a "prairie" province, has 93,000 square miles of forest, approximately 45 per cent of its land area. Of this, about one-third is covered by marketable lumber. The productive forests include spruce, jack-pine, balsam, fir, tamarack and cedar.

Primary Industries

There are approximately 27,000 square miles of rivers and inland lakes in Manitoba, most of the waters abounding in fish. The principal varieties are pickerel, whitefish, saugers, pike and tullibee. The white whales that frequent the Churchill region of Hudson Bay, although not fish, are generally included in this category.

It was the fur resources of the district which first attracted the traders from Europe, and the early history of the West is largely the history of the fur trade. Foxes, weasels, squirrels, muskrats, mink and wolves are found throughout the Province; skunk, badger, jack rabbit and coyote have their habitats south of the 53rd parallel; and in the northern parts, beaver, marten, fisher, lynx, otter and a better grade of fox are abundant.

The primary industries of Manitoba derive from the natural resources of the Province. By far the greatest of these industries is agriculture, the gross value of all farm produce (not including the merchandise obtained by the processing of agricultural products) amounting in 1952 to over $302 million. Next in economic importance are mining, with a record high of $32 million and forestry, including the manufacture of lumber, railway ties, lath, shingles, pulp and paper, with an estimated value in 1952 of $26 million. The fishing industry, with a catch valued at approximately $8 million almost entirely processed in Manitoba, relies for its major market



Fishing in Manitoba

on the United States, which takes 90 per cent of the catch. The fur industry, the oldest in the province, has been greatly aided in recent years by Fur Rehabilitation Blocks, in which the reflooding of previously dried marshes has brought back the muskrat, and by the institution of a Registered Trapline System in which each trapper is given exclusive rights over a registered area. The total value of the pelts taken in 1952 was approximately $4 million.

The most remarkable feature of the economy of Manitoba during the past ten years has been the rapid development of the secondary industries, including manu-



Agriculture

facturing and food-processing. The Province now displays what is known as a "maturing economy" in which primary production is balanced by industrial operations. The following table shows the relative values of the major manufacturing industries at the beginning and the end of the decade, (some of the figures are approximate):

Industry	*Value in 1941*	*Value in 1951*
The Meat-Packing Industry	$48,944,278	$110,000,000
The Garment Industry	15,000,000	50,000,000
Rolling Railway Stock	14,615,785	35,000,000
Primary Iron and Steel	3,000,000	9,000,000
Iron Castings	2,184,915	7,000,000
Sheet Metal Products	2,406,619	8,500,000
Farm Implements and Machinery	652,641	5,000,000
Furniture	1,195,024	13,000,000
The Petroleum Industry	2,810,573	40,000,000

Important industries, other than the packing plants, dependent upon agricultural produce in Manitoba, are:

Industry	*Approximate Value in 1952*
The Dairy Industry	$36,800,000
The Brewing Industry	11,000,000
Cotton and Jute Manufacture	8,000,000
Miscellaneous Food Industries	12,000,000
Vegetable Oil Industry	5,000,000

Other considerable industries in the Province are:

The Printing Trades	$30,000,000
Medicinal and Pharmaceutical Preparations	2,200,000
Electrical Apparatus and Supplies	8,000,000
The Paint, Lacquer and Varnish Industry	5,000,000

Another industry profitable to the economy of the Province is the tourist trade. It is estimated that in 1952, over three-quarters of a million tourists spent more than $24 million in Manitoba.

As a result of its geographic position, Manitoba has become the crossroads of the commerce and the travel

of Canada. Railway lines, air transportation and modern highways all offer exceptionally good facilities to industry and to travellers.

The two transcontinental railways, the Canadian Pacific and the Canadian National, have the headquarters of their Western Divisions in Winnipeg and maintain important engineering works in the vicinity. The CPR yards here are the largest privately-owned freight yards in the world, covering 1,220 acres and 214 miles of trackage. In addition to its 2,465 miles of main tracks, the CNR operates 510 miles of rail to Hudson Bay at Churchill and also about 150 miles to new mining developments in the north. The CP mileage in the Province includes 1,762 miles of main track.

Manitoba has approximately 2,500 miles of Provincial Trunk Highways. The Trans-Canada Highway, now being constructed, will provide the Province with a modern super-highway from east to west.

Winnipeg is also the hub of air traffic in the Province, with the regional headquarters of the Trans-Canada Airlines, the Canadian Pacific Airlines, the Central Northern Airways and the Northwest Airlines.

Canada's most inland seaport is situated in Manitoba at historic Fort Prince of Wales, now the port of Churchill. Built on one of the finest natural harbours in North Am-

erica, this port provides the shortest sea route to Europe from the mid-west.

A lesser-known form of transport in Manitoba is the "cat-train", consisting of heavy sleds hauled over the snow by diesel tractors. These trains operate over prepared trails to otherwise inaccessible points in the north.

The economic and political capital of Manitoba is Winnipeg, the fourth largest city in Canada. Here are found the western head offices of many large commercial corporations, banks, insurance companies and manufacturing and distributing organizations.

Winnipeg is a city of wide streets, with pleasantly treed boulevards in its residential districts. The corner of Portage and Main is reputed to be one of the busiest crossroads in Canada and one of the windiest in the world. It forms the hub of the traffic lanes of Greater Winnipeg.

The most notable building in the city is the Legislative Building erected in the second decade of the century. It is surmounted by a famous *Golden Boy* whose up-flung arm holds the torch of faith in the future of the West.

Across the Red River from Winnipeg lies the city of St. Boniface, the centre of Manitoba's ancient French community. Here is the celebrated Basilica with its "tur-



Winnipeg

rets twain", and nearby are great hospitals and colleges supported by the Catholic Church. Also in St. Boniface are extensive stockyards with the largest packing plants in Canada.

The marketing and distributing centre of Western Manitoba is the city of Brandon. This city, which is growing rapidly, is situated mainly on the southern slopes of the valley of the Assiniboine. It is a divisional point on the CPR and has numerous industries, including one of the largest seed warehouses of the Province and a de-

veloping oil refinery which may shortly draw its crude oil from recently discovered oil deposits near Virden, a town which lies between Brandon and the Saskatchewan border.

The fourth city of Manitoba is Portage la Prairie, on the Assiniboine at the site of the historic Fort la Reine. Lying as it does in the midst of the finest wheatlands of the Province, Portage is chiefly a distributing centre.

Manitoba may shortly have a fifth city. It is the flourishing mining centre of Flin Flon, within the Shield. The town, in which the houses seem to cling precariously to the bare shoulders of Precambrian rocks, has grown very rapidly as a result of the extensive operations of the Hudson Bay Mining and Smelting Company. It is now a typical mining town, full of confidence in its own future and in the future of the North.

Another noteworthy northern town is The Pas, now also full of confidence mainly as a result of a revival of the trapping industry. Its annual Fur Festival is one of the outstanding events of the northland.

Also in the north, but situated in the midst of rich farm lands, is the town of Swan River, a thriving community in a fertile valley lying between the Porcupine and the Duck Mountain Forest Reserves. North of the Riding Mountain Reserve, another prosperous agricultural district lies around the town of Dauphin.



Flin Flon

Market towns are dotted all over the agricultural regions of the south and west of the Province. Many of these, notably Neepawa and Steinbach, each with a population of 3,000, are developing local industries. In some of the larger centres are to be found creameries and manufacturing plants dependent upon agricultural products. Altona, a town not far from the Border, has flourishing co-operative enterprises, including a plant for extracting vegetable oil from sunflower seeds. Similar development is being actively promoted by the Provincial

Government. There is a distinctive group of communities developed as "company towns" around some commercial enterprise. Amongst these are Pine Falls, Great Falls, and Pointe du Bois at the site of electric-power developments along the Winnipeg River.

The extension of *Hydro* throughout the Province and the electrification of farms and small community centres, have done much to stimulate industrial development in many localities.

The Historic Sites and Monuments Board of Canada has erected stone cairns bearing distinctive bronze plaques at locations connected with a number of outstanding events in the history of Canada. The earliest of such events in Manitoba was the journey of twenty-two-year-old Henry Kelsey from York Factory into the neighbourhood of the present town of Swan River. The plaque reads: *"Discoverer of the Canadian Prairies. In memory of Henry Kelsey, Hudson's Bay Company Fur Trader and Explorer; the first white man to travel inland from Hudson Bay to Eastern Saskatchewan and to see the Canadian Prairies, 1690-1692; the first white person to record the existence of the musk-ox of the north, the buffalo herds and the grizzly bears of our plains."*

The great French-Canadian explorer Pierre Gaultier de Varennes, Sieur de la Vérendrye, is commemorated by four plaques, two at the forts he and his associates

established in the Canadian West; one at Fort Maurepas on the Winnipeg River, and one at Windygates Road on Provincial Highway No. 3, near Morden. The plaque at Portage la Prairie recalls the old Fort la Reine built by La Vérendrye in 1738, to become the headquarters from which he or his sons carried on explorations, northward to the Saskatchewan River, southwest to the Mandan country and westward to the Foothills of the Rocky Mountains.

On the bridge over the Assiniboine River, near its junction with the Red, is a plaque commemorating four historic forts. The first of these, Fort Rouge, was established by La Vérendrye in 1738; the second, Fort Gibraltar, was built by the North-West Company in 1804. The other two were Hudson's Bay Company forts: "Old" Fort Garry, built after the union with the Nor'westers in 1821; and "New" Fort Garry, built in 1836-39, the seat of government of the District of Assiniboia until the creation of the Province of Manitoba in 1870.

A tragic incident is recalled by a plaque on a cairn beside the Jefferson Highway at Letellier recalling the "War Road of the Sioux"—the Roseau Route. Here a nephew of La Vérendrye, a youth of twenty-three, La Jemmeraye, perished in 1736 while returning from an expedition by way of the Indian Trail.

At Churchill on Hudson Bay "one of the most interesting military remains on the continent" is to be seen at Fort Prince of Wales, a massive stone structure built to secure control of Hudson Bay for the Company. It was never adequately garrisoned, and Samuel Hearne with a force totalling 39 surrendered in 1782 to the French naval commander La Pérouse whose force numbered 400. The French partially destroyed the Fort and it was never rebuilt.

On the walls of Fort Prince of Wales another plaque commemorates Samuel Hearne, the discoverer of the Coppermine River and the founder, in 1774, of the first inland post of the Hudson's Bay Company at Cumberland House on the Saskatchewan River.

The Red River Settlement is recalled by a plaque which reads: *Near this site at the bend of the Red River stood Fort Douglas, headquarters of the first British settlement west of the Great Lakes.*

The Red River Settlement, founded by Lord Selkirk, was established under Captain Miles MacDonell in 1812.

Fort Douglas although destroyed by the North-West Company in 1815 was rebuilt in the same year and remained the headquarters of the settlement until the Hudson's Bay Company became the owners in 1834.

On Point Douglas, in the autumn of 1819, the first wheat in the West was sown.

Another cairn recalling the early rivalry between the companies is located on the Sunshine Highway near Wawanesa. It commemorates at least seven forts built on the Assiniboine River in the neighbourhood of the present town of Souris. David Thompson, the explorer of the Mandan country on the Missouri, frequently passed this way in the closing years of the eighteenth century.

A very modest bronze tablet near the corner of Portage and Main, in Winnipeg, recalls the beginnings of Manitoba's history as a province:

Nearby in the home of the Honourable A. G. B. Bannatyne, the First Legislature of Manitoba met on the 15th of March, 1871.

There are a number of the National Board's plaques recalling events in the early years of provincial history. Two of them, one at Norway House and the other at Lower Fort Garry, commemorate the signing of Indian Treaties: Treaty No. 5 with the Salteaux and Swampy Crees in the territory at the northern end of Lake Winnipeg, and Treaty No. 1 with the tribes dwelling within the boundaries of Manitoba as they were in 1871. A cairn at Sainte Anne marks the beginning of the Dawson Road, an early attempt to establish an overland route from the

Great Lakes to the prairies. At Headingly, on No. 1 Highway, may be seen the cairn noting the establishment of the Principal Meridian of the Dominion Lands Survey System by Colonel J. S. Dennis in 1871. The tablet notes that the system now embraces more than 200 million acres of surveyed land in Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta and parts of British Columbia.

Near the Border at Emerson, a cairn of particular interest marks the spot where the newly-formed North-West Mounted Police began their historic march to the West. The inscription reads:

North-West Mounted Police

On the 8th of July 1874, the newly formed North-West Mounted Police consisting of 300 officers and men, having assembled here at Dufferin Barracks, Headquarters of the Boundary Commission of 1872, left on its assignment to various posts in the North-West Territories. The record of this distinctly Canadian force in policing the plains is a source of pride to the people of Canada.

Photos courtesy of Manitoba Government, Department of Industry and Commerce.

HOW TO USE THIS PAMPHLET

MANITOBA

This is Article No. 12 in the CITIZENSHIP SERIES of CURRENT AFFAIRS pamphlets.

Read this pamphlet carefully, make notes and follow a definite plan in presenting your material in the Discussion Hour.

The headings in the pamphlet are arranged so that you can present your material in an orderly manner.

Place-names can be found on the accompanying map which should be referred to frequently so as to familiarize the group with the geography of the Province.

The following questions are suggested for discussion at the end of the presentation of your material:

1. Why should Manitoba be known as the "Keystone Province"?
2. What are the principal geographic and climatic features of Manitoba?
3. How was Manitoba settled and why did settlement take place where it did?
4. What does Manitoba contribute to music, theatre and other art forms?
5. What is the importance of Manitoba in Canada's economy?

Do not forget to make a summary of the discussion in the last five minutes of the hour.

EDMOND CLOUTIER, C.M.G., O.A., D.S.P.
QUEEN'S PRINTER AND CONTROLLER OF STATIONERY, OTTAWA, 1954


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Citizenship

No. 13

FOR THE CANADIAN FORCES

Government
Publications

The thirteenth of a series of pamphlets on Canadian Citizenship, prepared especially for the Armed Forces by the Bureau of Current Affairs.

The Province of Saskatchewan

No. 13

BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, CANADA

Introduction

In a foreword to the first of the regular series of *Current Affairs* pamphlets issued in October, 1951, the Minister of National Defence stated that service personnel "should know as much as possible about Canada . . .".

Accordingly, the Bureau of Current Affairs has initiated a series of citizenship pamphlets. In this series five have been published to date dealing with the following topics:—

The Canadian Constitution
How Parliament Works
Local Government
The Serviceman and His Vote
The Public Service of Canada.

We are now issuing citizenship pamphlets which tell about the ten provinces of Canada and Yukon and the Northwest Territories. This material will supplement the first five pamphlets.

We sincerely hope that service personnel will obtain a broader understanding and deeper appreciation of their country from a study and discussion of this material.

HARRY R. LOW
Director, Bureau of Current Affairs

The Province of Saskatchewan

Perhaps the fantastic magnitude of Saskatchewan's agricultural industry can best be imagined on the basis of one factual statement—without Saskatchewan's wheat, Canada, now regarded internationally as the world's most famous exporter of agricultural products, would scarcely have a voice in world agriculture. For Saskatchewan annually grows 60 to 65 per cent of all Canada's wheat, and it is wheat that gives Canada such a predominant position in international agricultural production.

Although wheat growing in the Province is on such a huge scale that it exceeds the production of all the rest of Canada together, wheat is by no means the only grain grown. One-third of all the oats and barley produced by Canada is grown in Saskatchewan. There is a substantial production of rye and flax. North of the main grain growing region there is a large output of practically all the diverse products of mixed farming.

Nor is Saskatchewan resting upon its historic agricultural laurels. Both the physical volume and the value

of Saskatchewan's agricultural products have been steadily increasing since the end of the Second World War.

In 1945 the index of the physical volume of agricultural production (1935-39 = 100) stood at 129·3. By 1950 it stood at 169·0; by 1951, at 214·9; and by 1952, at 250·0.

Meanwhile the aggregate cash income from the sale of Saskatchewan farm products rose from $417,959,000 in 1945 to $697,480,000 in 1952.

It is noteworthy that this spectacular increase in production was achieved while the number of workers employed on farms was actually decreasing. Great advances in farm mechanization constituted the principal factor in bringing about greater production with fewer farmers, but not the only factor. Soil conservation measures, new types of grains, irrigation, resettlement from submarginal land and various improved methods of farming all played their part.

Although cash income from farm products gives a pretty good idea of the immensity of the Province's principal primary industry, it does not, of course, tell the whole story. For example, the total value of all field crops in 1952 in Saskatchewan was estimated at $930 million. Cattle, swine and other products of the farm

almost certainly pushed the gross agricultural production that year over the billion dollar mark. That same year, all other forms of production: lumbering, fishing, manufacturing, mining, to name a few, raised the gross production of Saskatchewan an additional $400 million.

Although they are often pictured by people in other parts of Canada as one vast treeless plain, the Prairie Provinces at close inspection show a rather wide variation of physical features. This variation is of great economic importance to the individual provinces. It provides Alberta with its rich oil and coal resources. It gives Saskatchewan one of the two most important uranium-producing districts in Canada. Manitoba has very valuable copper deposits; it also has a region of tundra and a seaport on Hudson Bay.

There is not merely one great grassy plain but three. The first one is in Manitoba and has an average elevation above sea level of less than 1,000 feet. On its western edge, the Pembina Mountains, the Riding Mountains, Duck Mountain, Porcupine Mountain and the Pasquia Hills (on the Saskatchewan boundary) rise about 1,000 feet above the level of the Manitoba plain. Viewed from the west, this line of hills and "mountains" does not rise much above the level of the second prairie plain which has an average height above sea level of about 2,000 feet.

Canadian Shield

The second plain forms the southwest corner of Manitoba and runs diagonally across Saskatchewan into the northeast corner of Alberta. On its western edge is another narrow hill belt; then the third or Alberta Plain begins at a height of about 2,500 feet above sea level. This third plain slopes gradually up to about 4,000 feet above sea level at the Foothills of the Rocky Mountains. It provides the terrain for southwestern Saskatchewan and for all of Alberta with the exception of the northeast corner of the Province.

Nearly two-thirds of the surface of Manitoba, the northern third of Saskatchewan and a comparatively small area of northeastern Alberta are part of the western extension of the Canadian Shield, the tremendous Precambrian formation that stretches to Labrador and gives Canada so many of her tens of thousands of inland lakes, so much of her mineral wealth and so great a part of her potential water-power.

More than two-thirds of the area of the Prairie Provinces is wooded. The impression that the three provinces are treeless comes from the fact that the treeless region in the south was the earliest to be settled and is still almost the only part to be seen by the majority of transcontinental travellers.

The lack of trees, incidentally, is a result of the climate. Trees do not grow on the short-grass and the



Loon Lake

mixed-grass prairies simply because there is not enough rainfall. The average annual rainfall has never been enough to support forest growth, although it is adequate for various agricultural purposes. The entire southern half of the three provinces, excepting only a narrow mountain and foothill strip in western Alberta and a small area in southeastern Manitoba, is what the scientific agriculturists call a region of moisture deficiency. This whole area would need an additional two to ten inches of rainfall if the amount of precipitation were to balance the amount of moisture that is evaporated from the land in the summers.

What saves the situation, of course, is the snowfall of winter and the relatively little evaporation that occurs during that season. The moisture left by the snow, supplemented by the infrequent rains, has to last through the

summer. Otherwise the region would be as true a desert as the Sahara. As things are, it is one of the greatest agricultural regions on earth.

But the balance is delicate, as every prairie farmer and indeed every Canadian knows. Prairie anxiety about the amount of snowfall in winter and rainfall in summer has communicated itself across the whole nation. A drought year in the West adversely affects the pocketbook of everyone in Canada.

Geologists have pretty well figured out the reasons for the comparative flatness of the prairie landscape. Deep under the plains are sedimentary rocks laid down at a time when the region was a sea bed. Sedimentary rocks themselves have a tendency to flatten things out, covering over any underlying hills and valleys. In ancient movements of the earth's crust, the plains region rose above sea level. The Rocky Mountains, originally much higher than they are at present, were also upheaved.

Great glaciers began to wear down the Rockies and spew out the broken and pulverized rock over the sedimentary rock to the eastward until it lay there to a great depth.

Then came the various ice ages when the entire northern surface of North America was one huge sheet slowly moving forward and grinding and flattening every-

thing beneath it. Over the already ground-up material the ice moved like a bulldozer, slicing off elevations and filling in depressions.

As the ice melted it left huge fresh-water lakes in which sedimentation again occurred. But this time the settling silt left flat beds of clay rather than rock. Eventually rivers cut valleys deep enough to drain the lakes, and, possibly about 55,000 years ago, the process of building up topsoil began on the levelled plains.

The Province of Saskatchewan has a total area of 251,700 square miles, including about 18,000 square miles of fresh-water lakes, most of them in the north. It is one of the most regularly shaped political entities on the face of the earth. Its southern boundary with North Dakota and Montana is 292 miles of the 49th parallel of latitude. Its boundary with Alberta on the west is a straight line running north 761 miles to the 60th parallel of latitude. The latter forms the boundary between Saskatchewan and the Northwest Territories. This boundary on the north is 277 miles long.

The boundary with Manitoba is the only one of the four sides with a little variation in it. The northern third of it is a straight line, but from the Churchill River southward to the United States Border it runs with a series of short right-angled steps which make it coincide with the farm survey system. If it were not for the steps in the

boundary farmers would find part of their farm in one province and the other part in the other.

There are four main geographical regions in the Province. In the south are the open or treeless prairies, mostly of gently rolling land interrupted here and there by ridges and deep valleys. Immediately north of the true prairies are the parklands with copses of trees and wooded river valleys. The parklands stretch across the Province in a belt which includes Yorkton, Saskatoon and North Battleford. Farther north again, starting near Prince Albert, is the commercial forest region. It also is in the form of a belt across the Province from the Manitoba to the Alberta borders.

The northern third of Saskatchewan is the Precambrian Shield region, a land of thousands of lakes and rivers and ancient rock, fairly heavily wooded but without much merchantable timber.

Two of the lakes, Athabasca and Reindeer, are over a hundred miles long. Several others, Wollaston, Cree, and La Ronge, are larger than Lake Nipissing or Lake Simcoe in Ontario. Virtually all of them support large populations of lake trout, whitefish and Arctic grayling.

The drainage of Saskatchewan, like that of Alberta, goes in three directions. A very small fraction of it flows south by way of the Frenchman River and the Poplar River to the Missouri and thence to the Mississippi and



Logging

the Gulf of Mexico. Most of the Province, however, is drained eastward to Hudson Bay through the North and South Saskatchewan and Churchill Rivers. The Lake Athabasca region in the northwest corner drains to the Arctic Ocean through the Slave River, Great Slave Lake and the Mackenzie River.

The underlying geology of Saskatchewan—the bedrock—is, generally speaking, similar to that of Alberta, although the various types of bedrock are laid down in different proportions in the two provinces. The northern third of Saskatchewan is underlaid by the gneisses, granites and other acidic intrusive rocks of the Precambrian Shield, whereas Alberta has only a few hundred square

miles of such rocks in its northeast corner adjoining Saskatchewan. The chances that Saskatchewan will eventually have a very large and important base metals, precious metals and radioactive metals mining industry are, consequently, very much greater than that Alberta will have such an industry. Already, with tens of thousands of square miles of her north still to be thoroughly prospected, Saskatchewan holds the promise of being one of the world's greatest uranium mining centres, while for a considerable time the Province has shared with Manitoba the huge base metals mining operation at Flin Flon.

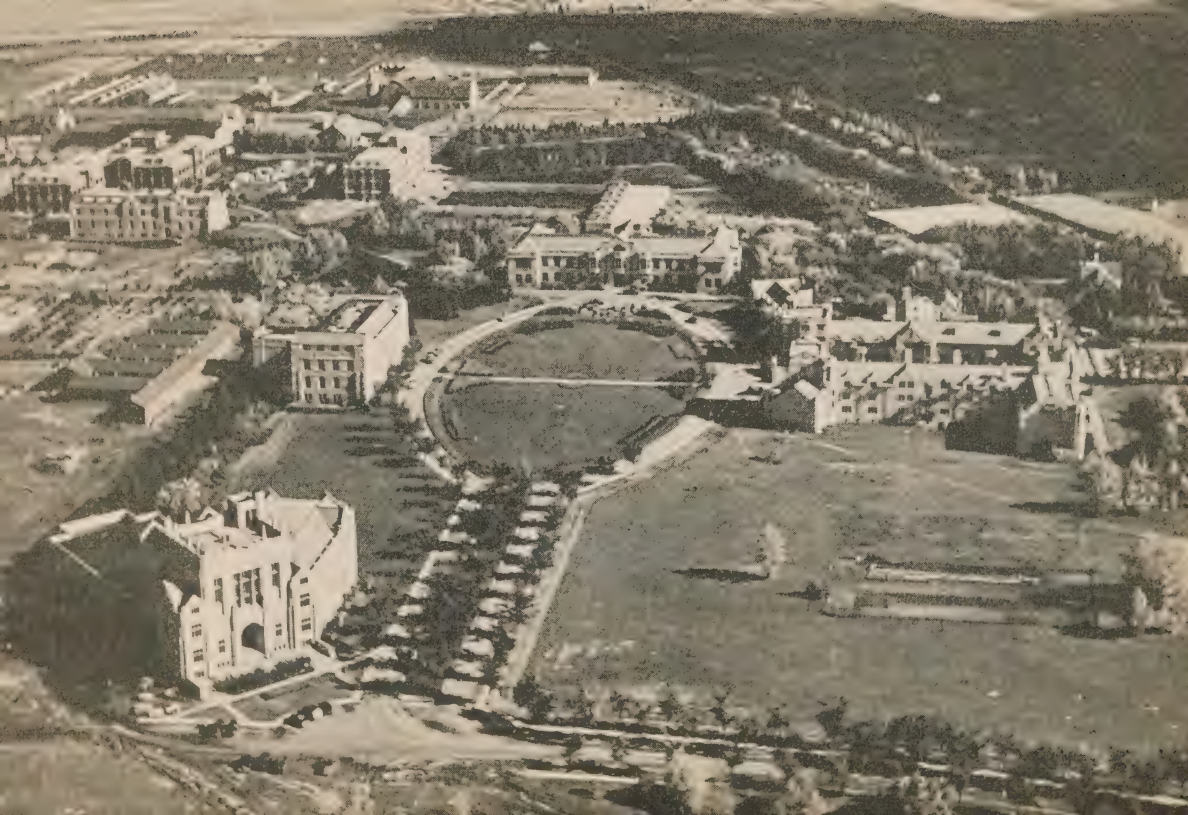
The southern two-thirds of Saskatchewan is underlaid with sedimentary rocks, most of them similar to the bedrock underlying 80 to 90 per cent of Alberta. They give Saskatchewan a chance to become a great oil producer, although probably not on as great a scale as Alberta.

Under the surface of much of Saskatchewan is an almost incalculable quantity of lignite coal, but it will never be economically feasible to mine it except in the comparatively rare locations, such as that at Estevan, where simple strip mining methods can be used. In any case, the market for lignite is limited.

But Saskatchewan's main geological and geographic wealth is in her soil. The systematic study of soils is a comparatively recent science. Indeed, much of the



Lake Trout



pioneering work was done by agricultural research specialists on the faculties of the Universities of Alberta and Saskatchewan starting about 1921. Soil survey maps are now available for all of southern Saskatchewan and they indicate in a general way what farmers already had learned by experience, some of it bitter, most of it pleasant and highly profitable.

Nearly all of the Saskatchewan soils are highly fertile provided climatic conditions are right. But climatic conditions in Saskatchewan are almost always on the dry side, and some of the five main types of prairie soil are more productive than others under these conditions. They are also much more productive for certain crops than they are for other crops. One of the ways, in addition to mechanization, in which Saskatchewan farmers have greatly increased their agricultural production during the post-war years is by more delicately adjusting their farming methods to soil and climate in the light of increasing scientific knowledge.

The climate of Saskatchewan is, as every Canadian knows, a climate of extremes so far as temperatures are concerned. Winter temperatures anywhere in the Province will at times go down to 30 or 40 degrees below zero. The January mean temperature in the region which

Campus of the University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon

includes Regina, Saskatoon, North Battleford and Prince Albert ranges from zero to five below.

In the summers, temperatures in southern Saskatchewan have gone to over 100 degrees, and many successive days in the 80s or even the 90s are by no means rare. The July mean temperature in the same Regina, Saskatoon, North Battleford region is 65 degrees. In other words, the thermometer goes up above 65° far enough in the day time and below 65° low enough at night to make 65° the centre line.

What Saskatchewan gets out of its climate in the main agricultural region is a short, swift growing season. The frost-free period—the time between the last frost of spring and the first frost of autumn—is only 100 days at Regina and Saskatoon. At Prince Albert it is only about 90 days. But in those 100 days, there is great heat, almost continuous sunlight, and extremely rapid growth wherever there is adequate moisture.

Look at it one way, and it is lucky that the frost-free season is no longer. Southern Saskatchewan would be a desert if it were. The average annual rainfall is only 13 to 18 inches, just enough to leave sufficient moisture in the ground to grow the crops that make the Province world famous. During the hot, short summer almost as much moisture is evaporated from the Saskatchewan plain as falls in the form of rain or snow throughout the

entire year. The precarious balance would be upset if it were not for the length of the winter, when relatively little evaporation occurs.

The name of the Province, of course, comes from the Saskatchewan River, which in turn comes from the Cree Indian name, *Sis-Sis-Katche-Wan-Sepie,* which means Big Angry Water.

The first white man to see parts of what is now the Province of Saskatchewan was probably Henry Kelsey, a young servant apprentice of the Hudson's Bay Company. About 1690, Kelsey, without seeking his employers' permission, departed with a band of Assiniboine Indians for a region far to the west of York Factory on the Hudson Bay shore. He eventually returned to his employers who apparently decided to use his experience as the basis of further exploration. In any case, Kelsey made an authorized journey of exploration far inland in 1691-92. The route he took and the precise regions he saw are unknown except that he did not travel by way of either of the great rivers, the Nelson and the Churchill, which subsequently became such important factors in Hudson's Bay Company travel.

Possibly, some traders of the Hudson's Bay Company penetrated into Saskatchewan from time to time in the following fifty years, but the next important white visitors were La Vérendrye and his sons in 1743. They

discovered the Red River and the sons set up temporary posts on the Saskatchewan River about 1750. In 1751, Boucher de Niverville crossed southern Saskatchewan when he went overland to the foot of the Rockies. Another early traveller was Anthony Henday (or Hendry), an employee of the Hudson's Bay Company. He joined an Indian band which was travelling up the Saskatchewan River and spent the winter hunting with Indians in what is now Alberta.

The Hudson's Bay Company apparently did little or no direct fur trading in Saskatchewan until after 1774. In that year, Samuel Hearne established the company trading post, Fort Cumberland, on the North Saskatchewan River near the present boundary between Manitoba and Saskatchewan. For a time the Hudson's Bay Company was apparently content to let the Indians bring their furs to Fort Cumberland. Stimulated by the competitive energy of the Northwest Company, however, the Hudson's Bay Company set up various posts deeper in Saskatchewan during the next half century. The Northwest Company was also dotting the plains with trading posts.

When the two companies merged in 1821, after carrying competition virtually to the stage of physical warfare, the continuing company opened new posts and abandoned old ones as economic conditions required. As in Alberta, the beginnings of settlement in Saskatchewan were usually in the vicinity of the trading posts. It was

not a case of settlers arriving with any forethought of permanent residence. It was simply a matter of little communities of Indians, half-breeds and white men more or less spontaneously gathering in the immediate vicinities of the trading posts, building permanent or semi-permanent living quarters, sometimes planting gardens or attempting to till a few square yards of land, and otherwise forming the nuclei of future towns, villages and even cities.

The settlement of Saskatchewan, like that of the other Prairie Provinces, was carried out largely by people from Eastern Canada. There was, however, in the case of Saskatchewan, a fairly considerable proportion of direct immigration from the British Isles and Europe. Indeed, direct immigration from Europe was so great that Saskatchewan is the only one of the Canadian provinces in which people of British and French ancestry are slightly outnumbered by fellow-Canadians whose ancestors came from other European countries.

The population of Saskatchewan, in the Census of 1951, was 831,728. Of these, about 402,000 were listed as having English, French, Scottish, Irish or Welsh ancestry. Of the others, about 407,000 had paternal ancestries going back to Germany, the Ukraine, the Scandinavian countries, the Netherlands, Poland and other European lands. The remaining 22,250 of the Province's population were native Indians.



Batoche

Although French explorers and fur-traders had an important share in the earliest stages of the opening up of the Prairie Plains, there was nothing from Quebec, in the later stages of settlement, that corresponded to the mass migration to the West from Ontario. As a consequence, the Saskatchewan population of French ancestry numbers only about 52,000. This compares with 352,000 of British Isles racial origin, either by way of the Eastern Provinces or by direct immigration.

Next to people of British ancestry, people of German racial origin constitute the largest percentage of the Saskatchewan population. They number 136,000. There are more people with German forefathers in Saskatche-

wan than in any other Canadian province except Ontario. They constitute 14 per cent of the population in Saskatchewan but less than three per cent in Ontario.

People of Ukrainian ancestry are the next largest of Saskatchewan's racial groups, with Scandinavians, Dutch and Polish following in that order.

In actual fact, they are all Canadians—with the exception of the three or four per cent who, because they are so newly arrived in Canada or for other reasons, have not yet acquired citizenship. Moreover, those who are officially listed by the census-takers as having this or that racial origin have in most cases a thoroughly well-mixed set of racial origins. For Census purposes, origin is traced through the paternal side and is taken as that of the first paternal ancestor to arrive in North America. But even one generation in Canada may produce a highly mixed racial background.

For example, a young man from Sweden might have arrived in Saskatchewan during the land rush days of the present century, married a girl whose family came from Ontario or Quebec, and had children who, through the maternal side, could have traced their North American ancestry back to 1610 at Cupper's Cove (now Cupids) in Newfoundland, or to 1608 at Quebec, or to 1774 at Cumberland House, in Saskatchewan itself. The sons and the sons' sons and daughters of those children would be



Hungarian Church

listed in the 1951 Census as of Swedish ancestry although by now they might have only one-eighth Swedish blood with the other seven-eighths consisting of English, French, Scots, Irish, American, German, Dutch, Ukrainian, Indian and several other racial strains.

Perhaps the best clue to the degree of matured Canadianism in the people of Saskatchewan is to be found in language statistics. Only 2·3 per cent of the population speak neither of Canada's two official languages, French and English. Of the 97·7 per cent who speak French or English or both, 767,238 speak English only, 4,656

speak French only, and 40,789 are bilingual in French and English. In other words, the number of Saskatchewan people who are bilingual in French and English is more than twice the number who are so recently arrived from Europe that they speak neither of the two official Canadian languages.

About two-thirds of the population of Saskatchewan are Canadian-born. Of those born elsewhere the largest group is from the British Isles and curiously enough the next largest group is from the United States. In Western Canada there has been a certain amount of fair exchange for the very considerable number of Canadians who, in past years, have migrated to the United States, largely from Eastern Canada.

Statistics tell only a bare story of the people of Saskatchewan. The real story is that these people have made their Province one of the greatest and most internationally famous agricultural regions of the earth; and, while doing so, have made fundamentally important contributions to the Canadian way of life.

But statistics emphasize one story, the fact that the people of Saskatchewan are overwhelmingly concerned with agriculture. They produce a very large proportion of all the wheat grown in Canada, the world's greatest wheat exporting country. Bread from Saskatchewan

wheat is eaten in every Canadian province and in many other lands.

Only 20 per cent of Canada's total population of 15 million are any longer engaged in actual farming, although another 18 per cent are classified as residing in rural areas. But in Saskatchewan 70 per cent of the people are rural dwellers. Most of these—48 per cent of the entire population—are farmers and their families. Prince Edward Island is the only other Canadian province where the farming population is not considerably outnumbered by persons deriving their living from other forms of economic activity. Even in Alberta, although the rural population still slightly outnumbers the urban, there are only 36 per cent of the people actually living on farms.

The Provincial Government of Saskatchewan consists of the Lieutenant-Governor, the Executive Council and the Legislative Assembly. General Elections for the Legislative Assembly are for a maximum duration of five years. There are 53 seats in the present Legislature.

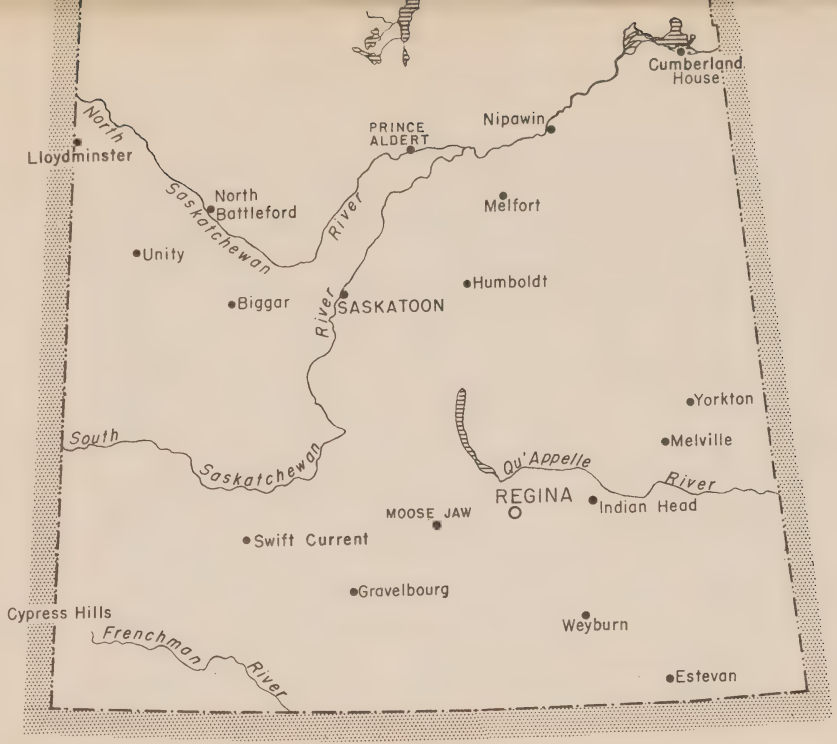
Saskatchewan is the only province in Canada where the Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (CCF) party forms the Government. In the half century since the formation of the Province in 1905 there have been twelve provincial general elections and eight administrations.

The Liberals won all the elections until 1929 when the Conservatives were the victors. But the Conservative administration lasted only until 1934 and the Liberals returned to power until 1944. In the latter year they were decisively defeated by the CCF and the latter won again by a large margin in the 1953 election. The Executive Council of Saskatchewan currently consists of 14 Ministers.

An unusual characteristic of provincial government in Saskatchewan is the number of Crown Corporations that have been established. Each of them reports to the Legislature through a Cabinet Minister. In addition to the Saskatchewan Government Airways and the Government telephone company, there are a power corporation, a transportation company, an insurance office, a printing company, a box factory, fish and fur marketing services and clay products and sodium sulphate industries. Some of these activities have their counterparts in other provinces, but the method of administration there is more likely to be by Boards or Commissions.

Saskatchewan's highest Court, the Court of Appeal, is presided over by the Chief Justice of the Province, who is assisted by four Puisne Judges of Appeal. The senior Trials Court is the Court of Queen's Bench, which also has a Chief Justice. There are six Court of Queen's Bench Puisne Judges.


Uranium City
Lake Athabasca
Wollaston Lake
SASKATCHEWAN
50 0 50 100 150
Miles
Cree Lake
Reindeer Lake
Frobisher Lake
Churchill Lake
Peter Pond Lake
Churchill R.
Lac la Ronge
Doré
Flin Flon


Cumberland House
Nipawin
PRINCE ALBERT
Lloydminster
North Saskatchewan River
North Battleford
Melfort
Unity
Humboldt
Biggar
SASKATOON
South Saskatchewan River
Yorkton
Melville
Qu'Appelle River
REGINA
Indian Head
MOOSE JAW
Swift Current
Gravelbourg
Cypress Hills
Weyburn
Frenchman River
Estevan

The Saskatchewan District Courts, which are in most respects similar to the County Courts of Ontario, for example, are located in 20 different districts throughout the Province.

There are city Police Courts in Regina, Moose Jaw, Saskatoon, Weyburn, Prince Albert and Swift Current. Provincial Police Magistrates are located in the same six centres and also in some seven or eight other towns.

Saskatchewan and Alberta, while they were part of the Northwest Territories, having been the primary reason for the creation of the Northwest Mounted Police, and Saskatchewan having long been the main training centre of the force, it was appropriate that Saskatchewan should have been the first province to arrange for the services of the "Mounties" in the dual capacity of provincial as well as federal policemen.

The agreement between the Province and the Federal Authority that the RCMP would, on payment by the Province for the service, take over the task of enforcing provincial laws and the Criminal Code, was entered into in 1928 and has been in effect ever since. The Saskatchewan agreement was the pattern for similar arrangements which came later in Alberta, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island.

Saskatchewan cities and many of the towns have their own municipal police forces; but in some of the towns there is an arrangement whereby town policing is done by the RCMP. The arrangement is much like that between the Province and the Federal Government, namely, the municipality engages the RCMP, for an annual payment, to do all the municipal police work in addition to its provincial and federal police duties. North Battleford, Yorkton and Weyburn are towns where the RCMP simultaneously exercise federal, provincial and municipal police jurisdiction.

There are more school teachers in Saskatchewan than in any other Canadian province except Ontario and Quebec. Indeed, there are 1,200 more school teachers in Saskatchewan than there are in neighbouring Alberta, where the population of school children is slightly higher. The explanation is to be found in the complete predominance in Saskatchewan of rural life on huge farms. On the prairies, population is so thinly and evenly distributed that children would have to travel unreasonable distances from their homes if schools were located on the basis of 35 or 40 children to a classroom, as is usually the case in urban centres and in the more thickly populated parts of the Eastern Provinces. In Saskatchewan, and also of course in the large farm areas of Alberta and Manitoba, the rural school with one teacher for a dozen or fifteen pupils is by no means rare.

University

Elementary school teachers receive their pedagogical training in two Normal Schools or Teachers' Colleges, one at Saskatoon, the other at Moose Jaw. High school teachers attend the College of Education of the University of Saskatchewan.

The University, located at Saskatoon, is a provincial institution organized in ten major colleges: Graduate Studies; Arts and Science; Agriculture; Commerce; Education; Engineering; Home Economics; Law; Medicine and Pharmacy. In addition, there is a School of Nursing, and an affiliate, Regina College at Regina. Incidentally, the University of Saskatchewan is one of the few Canadian universities which give a degree course in Fine Arts.

As is the case in the universities of the other Prairie Provinces, the College of Agriculture occupies an important position in the life of the University of Saskatchewan, especially in research. Other agricultural research centres in Saskatchewan are the Experimental Farms operated by the Federal Department of Agriculture. These are located at Indian Head, Swift Current and Melfort.

All three Farms conduct a wide variety of research but each has its specialty. At Indian Head, studies of the growth of trees of various species under prairie conditions have been made for many years. This Farm operates a huge tree nursery from which many millions of the

most suitable varieties of trees have been distributed to farmers for shelter belt planting. The Swift Current Farm specializes in dry land farming research and farm mechanization. Nearly all the new machines that have revolutionized farming during the past quarter century have had many of their early tests and workouts at Swift Current. The Melfort Farm concentrates on the problems of farming in the so-called parklands region of the western plains immediately north of the mixed-grass prairies. There is enough moisture for some scattered natural tree growth and farming methods drastically different from those in the dryer region to the south are appropriate.

Artists and philosophers will probably never settle their discussion of the type of environment and set of conditions most suitable for the development and production of fine art; but there is some reason to believe that comparatively little good art is likely to come out of a population that is confused, irresolute, unstable—in short, out of a population that does not know where it is going, or else is not going where it wants to go. Conversely, a homogeneous, well-informed population, adjusted to the inexorable conditions of regional life, should produce a considerable amount of noteworthy art.

The population of Saskatchewan is of the latter type. The homogeneity of viewpoint, purpose and ideals of

Community Spirit

Saskatchewan's people is so great that an Easterner can almost feel it the moment he visits the Province. Saskatchewan's community personality springs no doubt from the predominance of farming, the fact that the type of farming is no peasant variety but perhaps the most advanced in the world, and the further fact that virtually all members of the population have been through the same basic experiences many times. A sense of community has developed and that is a good foundation for the arts.

What will emerge from this aesthetic foundation only the future will disclose, but in any case the people of the Province seem to be making sure that everyone with a potential talent for art, literature and the crafts has an opportunity for development. Through formal support and encouragement from the Provincial Government, through leadership and training provided by the University of Saskatchewan in drama and in fine arts, through the Little Theatre Movement, through various types of adult education activities and through literally hundreds of individual or community enterprises, a large proportion of the people are interested in, engaged in, or actively supporting one form or another of the arts or crafts, in some cases as a means toward a professional career, in others as a recreation, a cultural interest or merely a relaxing hobby.



Amateur Theatricals

The senior authority encouraging the arts is the Saskatchewan Arts Board, set up some half-dozen years ago by an Act of the Provincial Legislature. Patterned after the Arts Council of Great Britain, with modifications to fit it to the Western Canadian environment, it holds exhibitions of paintings, purchases a number of paintings annually for the permanent collection of the Saskatche-

wan Art Board gallery, sponsors handicraft workshops and festivals, arranges concert series which give important young Saskatchewan musicians an opportunity to appear before audiences in many of the Province's cities and towns, and encourages literature and the drama in a practical way in writers' and theatre workshops.

The University of Saskatchewan has for a long time been making an important contribution to the arts through some of its departments. It was among the first of Canadian universities to have departments of drama, music and fine arts. It operates a summer school of art at Murray Point on Emma Lake near Prince Albert.

That the Little Theatre Movement in Saskatchewan is in a thriving state is proved year after year by the quality of entrants from that Province in the Dominion Drama Festival. On many occasions Saskatchewan players have received important awards.

But such senior level activities are only a fraction of the innumerable expressions of Saskatchewan's interest in the arts. From one side of the Province to the other, scores of high schools and community organizations annually put on their own dramatic productions, often receiving highly competent help from experienced directors and make-up artists. Both as a form of adult education and of recreation, there are many centres where the



Ceramics Class

crafts are taught. Beautiful leather work is one of the Saskatchewan specialties. Another is ceramics, often using the fine pottery clays found in the Province.

There is no question that Saskatchewan is the world's most famous grain growing region. That would seem to make the soil and the climate the greatest natural resources of the Province—or at least of the southern half of the Province. And, of course, the overwhelmingly primary industry is agriculture.

From the point of spectacular news, it has been some of the other forms of production that have been getting

the headlines in Saskatchewan these past few years. The huge and still growing agricultural economy is scarcely news. But the discovery of uranium, oil and several other minerals, in a Province that at times seems almost a little bored by its own agricultural pre-eminence, is regarded as very important news.

The most widely publicized of these discoveries was that of uranium in the northern part of the Province. Many mining companies, in addition to the Federal Crown Company, Eldorado, have been participating in the uranium finds and their development with the result that Canada, already one of the most important uranium producers with the Eldorado mine at Great Bear Lake, becomes of even greater importance as a source of the raw material for atomic power.

Roughly, the northern third of Saskatchewan is Precambrian Shield country, the same kind of geological formation that has provided the great base and precious metals mines of Ontario and Quebec and more recently of northern Manitoba. The continuity is strikingly evident at Flin Flon where the town is in Manitoba but the mine is mainly in Saskatchewan. Copper, zinc, gold and cadmium are all produced from this one mine.

At present, some of Canada's biggest mining companies are actively engaged in mineral exploration and development work in northern Saskatchewan.



Uranium Mine

Meanwhile, some 70 million acres of Saskatchewan are being explored for oil and gas. Oil has been found at various widely separated points in the Province. Although nothing on the scale of the tremendous petroleum industry of Alberta is immediately in sight, many Saskatchewan people are hopeful that their Province will in time also become a major oil producer.

The principal gas fields are in the west-central region of the Province. Proven reserves of gas are stated to be well over 200 billion cubic feet while potential reserves in sight are estimated at many times that figure.

The oil exploration program has had some interesting secondary results in the discovery of various industrial minerals during well drilling. Salt, sodium sulphate and potash are among the minerals that have been found this way. A company at Unity, Sask., produces about



Oil Well

30,000 tons of table, dairy, stock and other kinds of salt a year. Several companies are producing sodium sulphate.

Like Alberta, Saskatchewan has huge coal deposits but production is only about two million tons annually, much of it at Estevan where economical strip mining methods can be used. Saskatchewan coal is apparently all lignite, excellent for certain purposes, but not as suitable for other purposes as the bituminous and semi-anthracite coals of Alberta. Saskatchewan coals escaped the great transforming pressures during the upheaval of the Rocky Mountains, the pressures that gave Alberta coals their diverse qualities.

Among Saskatchewan's other minerals are various kinds of ceramic clays, including even kaolin, the raw

material for the finest types of china. Saskatchewan clays are already being utilized fairly extensively in the manufacture of heavier types of pottery and of industrial tile and brick.

The timber industry is a flourishing one for a province which is regarded as treeless by much of the population of the rest of Canada. Saskatchewan has, of course, a huge forested region north of Prince Albert. In a typical year more than 75 million board feet of lumber, mostly white spruce, run through more than 500 sawmills. The annual production of forestry products is worth over $10 million.

Saskatchewan's fresh-water fisheries are among the most important in Canada except for those in the Great Lakes. Production in the commercial fisheries is over 11 million pounds annually. Meanwhile, the fish resources of the northern part of the Province are becoming internationally famous in another way. They have been "discovered" by American sportsmen and are adding greatly to tourist revenues.

The nature of Saskatchewan's principal primary products is not such as would lead one to expect a great deal of manufacturing. Food processing, meat packing, some wood fabrication would be natural in the Saskatchewan economy. So too would the manufacture or assembly of farm machinery.



Sodium Sulphate Plant

In actual fact, these are the industries that exist, although the manufacture of complete farm machinery is rare, most of it being brought in either completely finished or in parts from the East. In the post-war years, however, many of the long-established manufacturing plants have been expanding and new industries have been established. Some of the newer ones make metal products.

One of the most striking examples of expansion has been in petroleum refining—perhaps a natural result of proximity to the great oil fields of Alberta and, of course, to the availability of the raw material through a pipeline

that originates at Edmonton and cuts across Saskatchewan on its way to the head of the Lakes. Saskatchewan is now producing much of the vast quantities of tractor fuel used on the Province's farms.

In 1891 Saskatchewan's rail communications consisted of the Main Line of the C.P.R. across the southern part of the Province more or less parallel to the American Border and a branch line northward from Regina to Saskatoon. The latter was extended still farther north to Prince Albert.

Between the time the territory became a province and the outbreak of the First World War two more transcontinental rail lines, the Grand Trunk Pacific and the Canadian Northern, had been built across the plains. Various additional branch lines were also built. Nevertheless, there were still many farmers who had to haul their grain twenty or thirty miles to a railway. But the picture changed between 1920 and 1930. So many branch lines were constructed in this period that very few of Saskatchewan's popultion lived more than ten miles away from a railroad.

The location of population centres, particularly the smaller ones, the towns and villages, was largely influenced by the routes of the railway lines. The other major influencing factor was water supply. Where a railway line

crossed a river or creek, almost spontaneously and inevitably a village was founded—one might almost say, a village occurred.

Early roads in Saskatchewan, other than railway lines, were chiefly unsurfaced trails across the prairies. They served their age moderately well for saddle horses and horse-drawn wagons, but something better was needed for the age of the motor car, which, because of the distances to be travelled, quickly became an essential of prairie life. The comparative ease of prairie roadbuilding and the farmers' needs have given Saskatchewan a network of 16,000 miles of surfaced roads, the fourth longest mileage among the provincial road networks in Canada.

Most of Saskatchewan's roads are gravel surfaced. For a large part of the year they are, generally speaking, excellent highways, though a bit dusty in summer. Certain of the main roads are bituminous surfaced, but the aggregate length of bituminous surface amounts to less than 1,000 miles.

Like Alberta, Saskatchewan is to a certain extent skipping some of the advanced developments of the automobile age as far as highways are concerned and is plunging directly into the air age. The Province has 25 airports including six operated by the Department of Transport, two by the RCAF and 16 on a municipal basis.

Trans-Canada Airlines serves the Province for east and west transcontinental air traffic while Canadian Pacific Airlines operates the principal north and south flights and also air services into such northern centres as Uranium City. Flin Flon on the Manitoba-Saskatchewan border is also served by Canadian Pacific Airlines.

The Province has its own Saskatchewan Government Airways, which facilitates several types of official business and is available to assist in various kinds of emergency. Saskatchewan has been, for example, a pioneer in the development of air ambulance services.

Additionally, and particularly in the north, there are a number of unscheduled air services available for charter flights, air freighting, and other types of trips in undeveloped or partially developed territory. In recent years the airlifting of sportsmen into some of northern Saskatchewan's famous fishing spots has been a rapidly increasing business for some of the local air services.

The main telephone system in Saskatchewan is provincially-owned. It is operated as a Crown Corporation which is responsible to the Minister of Telephones in the Saskatchewan Government. There are more than 125,000 telephones in the Province.

Telegraph services are provided throughout Saskatchewan, as in other provinces, by the Canadian National and Canadian Pacific Telegraph Companies.

Regina

Regina, the provincial capital, is one of the oldest centres of government in the West between Winnipeg and the Pacific Ocean. It was made the Capital of the North-west Territories in 1882 and the following year it became the Headquarters of the Northwest Mounted Police. It was consequently well-prepared to become the Capital of the new Province when Saskatchewan joined Confederation in 1905.

The Indians had a name for the site of Regina. They called it "Pile of Bones". In the Indian tongue, that was "Wascana". The Indian name was used by the early white settlers for the trading post on the Indian camp site, and it is still used for the small river or creek which winds through Regina. But with the coming of the railway, the pile of bones idea—they were buffalo bones accumulated by the Indians through many generations on their camp site—was not considered sufficiently dignified for the name of the settlement; so the name was changed to Regina in honour of Queen Victoria. From a promotional viewpoint subsequently, the new name was handy. It was only a short step further to the slogan, "Regina, Queen of the Plains".

Wascana Creek, a tributary of the Qu'Appelle River, has been used by the people of Regina to transform their city from a series of rectangles on a treeless plain into a

green and attractive wooded area complete with lake. A dam has been thrown across the creek near the Saskatchewan Legislative Building and the waters backed up to form Wascana Lake, which is bordered by park and recreation grounds.

Like almost every prairie city, Regina has a growth curve which dramatically reflects the stages of settlement and development of the region in which it is located. The population at the 1951 Census was 71,319, the fourth largest city of the Prairie Provinces. The most spectacular period of growth came in the period between the 1901 and the 1911 Censuses. In 1901 the community was a small town of 2,249 people; by 1911 the population was 30,213. The extremely rapid growth was, of course, the result of the first great rush of settlement to prairie agricultural lands during the first decade of the century. Much of Saskatchewan's settlement occurred in that period. Manitoba began to be settled earlier; Alberta's basic settlement was spread over a longer period.

During the next ten years, Regina's population increased by only a little more than 4,000. That was the period when the homesteaders were consolidating their mastery of the new land, needing only basic services from the city. Another population spurt occurred during the 1921-23 decade when 20,000 new residents came to

Regina. That population increase reflected a movement of farmers' sons to cities, a greater demand for more complex urban services by the surrounding rural areas and also the development within the city of secondary industries based on primary agricultural products.

But the next few years were the heart-breaking years of the great depression, particularly in Saskatchewan. Economic conditions combined with drought to force many farmers off the land. The population of the Province as a whole declined, a rare thing for any Canadian province. Regina's population increased slightly to 58,245 in the 1941 Census, but part of the increase consisted of people who had been forced off the land. The remainder, however, can be attributed to a revival of healthy, vigorous development both in the city and throughout the Province generally, in the two or three years just before the outbreak of the Second World War, plus, of course, the great demands for food-stuffs made upon agriculture by the War itself. Regina began to grow lustily again, not with the speed of Edmonton, for example, where the spectacular population increases were largely the result of major new economic developments, but with a steadiness that indicated sound health and a long course of future development for the predominant Saskatchewan industry, agriculture.

Manufacturing

Aside from its administrative functions as the Provincial Capital, Regina is fundamentally a farm trading centre. But there is considerable manufacturing, much of it related directly to the mutual interdependence of the city and the huge South Saskatchewan rural region. The principal industries include milling, meat packing, brewing, oil refining and the assembly of farm machinery and motor vehicles.

Among the city's educational institutions is Regina College, affiliated with the University of Saskatchewan.

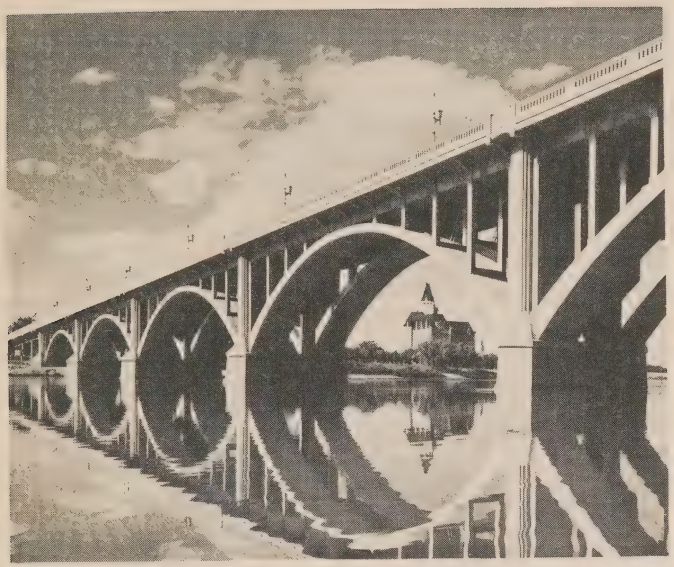
The massive Saskatchewan Legislative Building, constructed of a light limestone, occupies a beautifully landscaped site on the shore of Wascana Lake. The City Hall, Public Library, Post Office and the Federal Building are grouped in the business and civic centre of the city near the Union Station. Regina is on the Main Transcontinental Line of the C.P.R. while a network of C.N.R. lines provide connections with Saskatoon and other Saskatchewan communities, with American railways in North Dakota, and with the Hudson Bay Railway whose terminus is at Churchill.

About 150 miles northwest of Regina on the South Saskatchewan River is Saskatoon, the Province's second city, with a population in 1951 of 53,268. It is on the Main Transcontinental Line of the C.N.R.

Saskatoon

Saskatoon's main development did not begin as early as that of Regina. It had to wait until the building of the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway (now part of the C.N.R. system) opened the northern half of Saskatchewan's good farming region just as the C.P.R. had opened up the southern half. The land rush, which occurred in the Regina region in the first decade of the century, took place in the Saskatoon district mainly in the second decade. Otherwise, Saskatoon's growth had been much like Regina's, although in Saskatoon there was actually a slight overall loss of population during the decade of depression.

With the exception that Regina, as the seat of Provincial Government, is the administrative centre of Saskatchewan and Saskatoon, as the seat of the University of Saskatchewan, is the educational centre, there is much in common between the two cities. Saskatoon is a wholesale and retail centre for its part of Saskatchewan, just as Regina is for the southern part. The two cities have about the same amount and about the same types of manufacturing. The people of the two cities have even reacted in much the same manner to the prairie landscape. Whereas in Regina they dammed a creek to make Wascana Lake, in Saskatoon they dammed the South Saskatchewan River and produced an attractive, winding lake-like body of water several miles long, and laid out several tree-shaded parks beside it.



Saskatoon

Moose Jaw, with a population of 24,000, is Saskatchewan's third city. Located at the junction of the Moose Jaw River and Thunder Creek, 47 miles west of Regina, it gets its city water through a canal 70 miles long to the South Saskatchewan River. It is a divisional point for both the C.N.R. and the C.P.R., and nine rail lines radiate from the city. Industries include flour milling, seed cleaning, oil refining, meat packing and butter making.

Prince Albert

At the northern edge of the best farming area and the southern edge of the commercial forest lands, Prince Albert, a city of 17,149, on the North Saskatchewan River, 80 miles north of Saskatoon, is almost at the geographical centre of the Province. The district immediately surrounding the city is largely devoted to mixed farming but the influence of the forested region to the north is to be found in various woodworking industries in Saskatoon. Like Edmonton, on a smaller scale, Prince Albert is developing into a jumping-off point for the new industries of the north. Rich discoveries of uranium in Saskatchewan's share of the Canadian Shield have enormously speeded up this northward development and increased Prince Albert's importance as a transportation centre and distributing point. The city is also a transshipment point for the products of Saskatchewan's extensive northern fisheries.

Because the pattern of agriculture is comparatively uniform throughout the entire southern half of Saskatchewan, the pattern of settlement is also without great variation. In the country, nearly everybody is within five or ten miles of a small town or village and also within 50 or 60 miles of a larger population centre, either one of the cities or else a town in the 3,000 to 7,500 population class. Among the latter towns are North Battleford, Mel-

fort, Nipawin and Lloydminster in the north-central region; Biggar and Humboldt in the Saskatoon region; and Swift Current, Weyburn, Melville and Yorkton in the southern region.

Photos courtesy of the Saskatchewan Department of Natural Resources

HOW TO USE THIS PAMPHLET

SASKATCHEWAN

This is Article No. 13 in the CITIZENSHIP SERIES of CURRENT AFFAIRS pamphlets.

Read this pamphlet carefully, make notes and follow a definite plan in presenting your material in the Discussion Hour.

The headings in the pamphlet are arranged so that you can present your material in an orderly manner.

Place-names can be found on the accompanying map which should be referred to frequently so as to familiarize the group with the geography of the Province.

The following questions are suggested for discussion at the end of the presentation of your material:

1. In what respects do the physical resources and topography of Saskatchewan contribute to the wealth of the Province?
2. What are the distinguishing features of government in Saskatchewan?
3. What part does agriculture play in Saskatchewan's economy? Why does it continue to be more productive despite a decrease in the number of people employed on farms?
4. What are characteristic features of the leading cities of Saskatchewan?

Do not forget to make a summary of the discussion in the last five minutes of the hour.

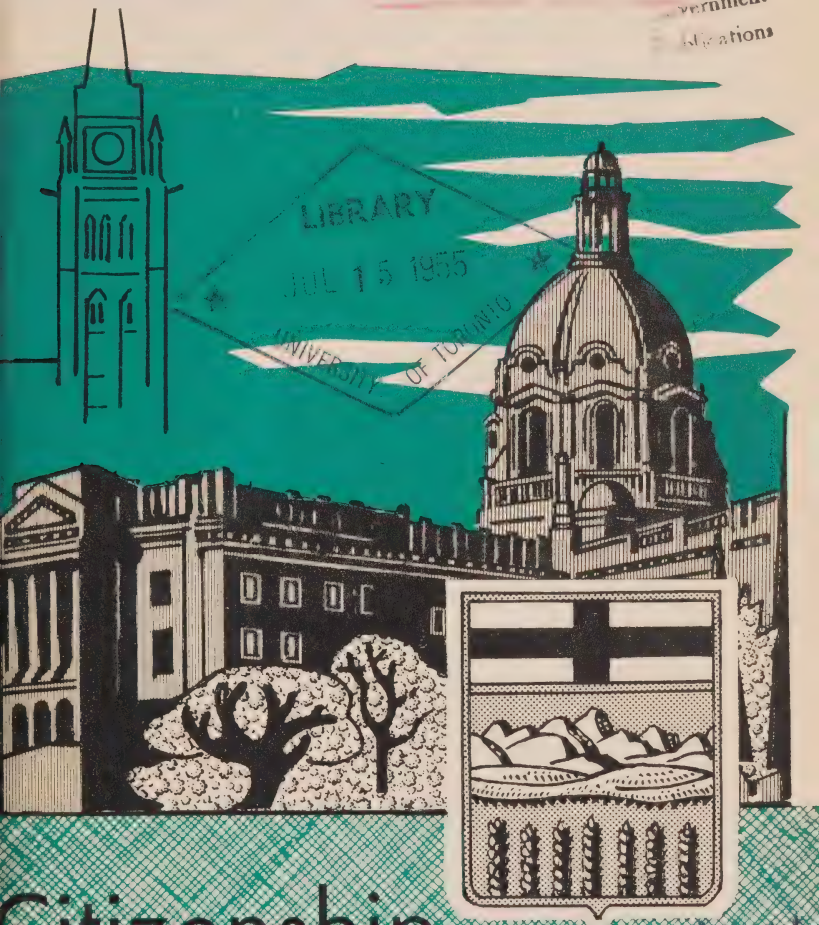
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Citizenship

FOR THE CANADIAN FORCES

No. 14

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The fourteenth of a series of pamphlets on Canadian Citizenship, prepared especially for the Armed Forces by the Bureau of Current Affairs.

The Province of Alberta

No. 14

BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, CANADA

Introduction

In a foreword to the first of the regular series of *Current Affairs* pamphlets issued in October, 1951, the Minister of National Defence stated that service personnel "should know as much as possible about Canada . . .".

Accordingly, the Bureau of Current Affairs has initiated a series of citizenship pamphlets. In this series five have been published to date dealing with the following topics:—

The Canadian Constitution
How Parliament Works
Local Government
The Serviceman and His Vote
The Public Service of Canada.

We are now issuing citizenship pamphlets which tell about the ten provinces of Canada and Yukon and the Northwest Territories. This material will supplement the first five pamphlets.

We sincerely hope that service personnel will obtain a broader understanding and deeper appreciation of their country from a study and discussion of this material.

HARRY R. LOW
Director, Bureau of Current Affairs

The Province of Alberta

Some millions of years ago, Alberta was a sea bed. Then it was a tropical swamp and jungle.

Dinosaurs roamed there in remote times and their skeletons are found where the Red Deer and other rivers have cut deep valleys into the plains.

In the present age, Alberta has become one of Canada's fastest developing provinces. It has been noted for several decades as an important agricultural region, but now its fame as a petroleum producer and as a rapidly evolving industrial centre is beginning to attract world-wide attention.

Alberta appears to have enough oil to make Canada self-sufficient, within a very few years, in this essential raw material for a complex modern industrial economy. Alberta also has almost unbelievably vast reserves of coal, the classic although probably no longer essential foundation for industrial development.

And the oil was arranged for millions of years ago in the ancient sea bed. And the coal was laid down in the tropical swamps through which the dinosaurs roamed.



Drilling for Alberta's Oil Wealth

The oil is believed to have been manufactured by tremendous pressures and other geological processes out of the bodies of countless billions of marine organisms which died and sank to the bottom of the prehistoric sea. The coal was manufactured by somewhat similar processes out of the residues of the lush vegetation which grew in the prehistoric tropic swamps.

The rich resources which promise Alberta so prosperous a future were a long time in preparation.

Even the comparatively rich Alberta agricultural economy of recent years—it is still far more important to the majority of Alberta's population than the more recent and sensational oil and industrial developments—was also a long time in preparation. The wheat lands, the sugar-beet fields of the south, and the ranch lands that feed so much of Canada's meat were laid down on top of the petroleum-bearing rocks and the layers of coal as the result of further geological processes extending over vast stretches of time. The deep earth of the prairies is said by geologists to have come mainly from the wearing down of the Rocky Mountains which, once upon a time, may have been much higher than Everest.

In comparatively recent times, geologically speaking—only tens of thousands of years rather than tens of millions—the region came under the grinding, flattening effects of the successive ice ages. The great ice-sheets, moving slowly like bulldozers, distributed the broken down material from the mountains and spread it out into the prairie plains. More thousands of years were needed for the development of the topsoil which in a brief half century has produced so many hundreds of million bushels of wheat.

Indian Tribes

If Alberta's geological past is impressive and is now paying off in spectacular recent developments, the Province's human past may be equally interesting when the anthropologists have succeeded in piecing it together. The majority of scientists believe that the first human inhabitants of the Western Hemisphere came from Asia by way of Bering Strait. Certain discoveries of very ancient arrow-heads or spear-points suggest that they possibly travelled southward and spread over the North American Continent by way of Alberta.

However, the known story of human beings in Alberta is recorded with considerably more accuracy than is the prehistoric story.

When the white man first arrived in the New World, the inhabitants of Alberta were the members of half a dozen tribes of Indians. In the north and northwest were the Chipewyan and Beaver tribes. Central Alberta was the region of the Sarcees. The Blackfoot, the Blood and the Piegan Indians inhabited the southern region.

None of these tribes had permanent villages as did the agricultural Indians of the Great Lakes region. They had favourite camping spots, but they moved with the seasons and with the migrations of bison, antelope and other game animals. Fixed encampments did not develop until later as small settlements arose around the "forts" of the fur-traders.



Sugar Factory and Sugar Beet Harvesting

White men were not to see the Alberta plain until more than 100 years after Champlain died at Quebec. True, the French explorers, Radisson and Groseillers, in 1659, reached the prairies, but they saw them in what is now United States' territory south of Manitoba. It was 1743 before La Vérendrye and his sons crossed the Canadian prairies and became the first men of European blood to see the Rocky Mountains. Their view of the mountains was probably from Alberta soil. Boucher de Niverville crossed the prairies, also, in 1751 and, at the foot of the Rockies, built a temporary stockade which he called Fort Jonquière.

The Hudson's Bay Company had acquired title to the territory by its charter of 1670, but it was more than seventy years before any representative of the company arrived there. In 1754, an employee of the company, Anthony Henday, reached the plains, roved over large

areas of them with a band of Indian hunters and spent the winter on the Red Deer River, north of the future site of Calgary. But even as late as 1774, the Hudson's Bay Company had no establishment west of Cumberland House, near the place where the Saskatchewan River crosses the present Saskatchewan-Manitoba boundary. Indeed, economic attention was not paid first to Alberta by the Hudson's Bay Company, but by its great rival which was organized, with headquarters in Montreal, as late as 1783.

Representatives of the North West Company, flouting the charter of the Hudson's Bay Company, began to explore the land and trade in furs. One of them, Alexander Mackenzie, was the first person to cross the continent overland all the way to the Pacific. Mackenzie made the two most important journeys of exploration in the history of the Canadian West. In 1789, he descended the Athabasca and Mackenzie Rivers to the Arctic Ocean. As a result, his name became the name of Canada's longest river. In 1792-93, Mackenzie ascended the headwaters of the Peace River, crossed the mountains and reached the Pacific, near Cape Menzies.

The first settlement arose out of the fur trade. Both trading rivals established numerous posts during the final years of the eighteenth century and the early years of the nineteenth. Among them were Fort Edmonton (origin-

ally built in 1795 about 20 miles down river and moved to the present site of Edmonton in 1808), Fort Vermilion, Fort Chipewyan, Jasper House, Rocky Mountain House and Fort McMurray—all names of existing Alberta communities.

Competition between the two companies developed into virtually open warfare and it raged until they were amalgamated in 1821. The fur-traders were agreed on only one thing: they did not want the West settled. But settlement occurred in spite of them and, ironically, because of them. Indians who had previously been nomadic began to live permanently in the vicinity of trading posts. Traders took Indian wives. The Métis racial group, partly of white, partly of Indian ancestry, developed. Each trading post became a village.

Although Manitoba received its first farmer settlers in 1811, Alberta remained virtually vacant, except for little fur-trade communities, until 1869. In that year the Hudson's Bay Company relinquished to the government of the new Canadian federation its charter right to govern the West.

Canada paid £300,000 and also agreed to give the company title to one-twentieth of all the land in the fertile belt to be opened in future for settlement. The fertile belt was described as bounded on the south by the United

States, on the west by the Rockies, on the north by the North Saskatchewan River, and on the east by Lake Winnipeg and the Lake of the Woods.

The name chosen for the purchased region was Northwest Territories of Canada, the name that is still applied to the vast remnant in the north beyond the plains which were organized later into three provinces.

But the new Federal Government of Canada, with many urgent matters to attend to in the first years of Confederation, did not take care enough to reassure the 12,000 uneasy settlers between the Great Lakes and the Rockies. The settlers, both Métis and white, but especially the Métis, were afraid they were going to lose their lands. Government surveyors were working in the country and their objectives were misinterpreted The anxieties of the Métis, intensified by the oratory of Louis Riel, developed into the first Northwest Rebellion.

It was a small rebellion on a huge stage. The part of the stage that is now Alberta had very little to do with it. Most of the few events of that revolt were played out in Manitoba at Fort Garry, now Winnipeg.

Riel set up a provisional government at Fort Garry, with himself as president. A military expedition, under Col. Garnet Wolseley (later Lord Wolseley), was sent

from the East. When the expedition reached Fort Garry in August, 1870, Wolseley found that Riel was gone and the rebellion had collapsed.

But the first Riel Rebellion was to have a profound effect upon Alberta. It was one of the factors which led to the organization of the North West Mounted Police in 1873—and there is not the slightest doubt that the North West Mounted Police saved the region that was ultimately to become Alberta from the most brutal aspects of "wild west" lawlessness.

The NWMP, while they were created primarily as a result of the attention focused on the west by the rebellion, were founded less with the idea of having a force on hand to deal with uprisings than with general lawlessness and as an agency to protect both settlers and Indians from a succession of small free enterprise invasions from south of the International Border.

In 1873, a party of freebooters crossed the Border in the Cypress Hills region and attacked a camp of Assiniboine Indians. Except for bows and arrows, the Indians were defenceless. The American outlaws used repeating rifles.

On another occasion 170 men, women and children in an encampment of the Piegan tribe were wiped out on Canadian soil by a gang of heavily armed Americans.

Fort Macleod

In the summer of 1874, the first 300 members of the North West Mounted Police left the Red River on a march across the plains to the region of the Blackfoot Indians in southern Alberta, near the Foothills.

Fort Macleod, on the Oldman River, the first outpost of law and order in the far Canadian West, was constructed. Other posts were set up at Swan River and at Fort Edmonton.

No time was lost in bringing illicit liquor-traders to justice. There was an equally vigorous attempt to demonstrate to the Indians that the quality of Canadian justice was impartial. Within a matter of weeks the red coats of the NWMP had won the respect of the wiser chiefs. Within the year they had the confidence and the formal co-operation of Crowfoot, the influential head of the Blackfoot confederacy.

The "Mounties" accomplished the first part of their task in the nick of time. The most powerful Indians in the northwestern United States were the Sioux. In 1876 they asked the Blackfeet to cross the Border and join them in war against the United States cavalry, suggesting that afterward they would assist the Blackfeet in wiping out the red-coated police and all the white settlers in Western Canada.

The Blackfeet turned down the proposed alliance, sending back word that the NWMP were their friends. Angered by the refusal of an alliance, the Sioux threatened to make war on the Blackfeet. The NWMP assured the Blackfeet that they would fight side by side with them if the Sioux attacked.

But it was not long before remnants of the Sioux themselves were seeking political refuge in Canada.

In the summer of 1876, the warfare between the Indians and the American cavalry reached its climax near the junction of the Big Horn and the Little Big Horn Rivers in Montana, about 300 miles south of the Cypress Hills of Alberta. The Sioux, led by Sitting Bull, had a large encampment there. Major-General George A. Custer, in command of the 7th Cavalry Regiment, attacked after dividing his unit into three columns. Custer himself, who had one of the most brilliant reputations of any American cavalry leader, led the charge of the centre column. Custer and every man of the centre column were killed by the Indians. Remnants of the two flanking columns survived until reinforcements arrived.

The death of Custer and his men so aroused the United States that war against the Indians was intensified. Sitting Bull and approximately 5,600 Sioux men, women and children moved out of range by crossing the Border into Canada.

The North West Mounted Police brought in reinforcements from northern posts. These raised the force to 214 red-coated officers and men to deal with an explosive situation along more than 400 miles of seething Border territory.

The Canadian Indians became restless when they heard of events below the Border. There were indications that the Sioux were trying again to induce them to join in attacks on the whites. There were also indications that the Sioux were planning to move to the hunting grounds of the Blackfeet where buffalo were no longer plentiful enough to support so many additional mouths. In southern Alberta the North West Mounted Police warned Sitting Bull that he and his followers must observe Canadian laws while in this country; and the police had a sub-post at Wood Mountain, near the Sioux encampment, to make sure that the laws were observed. Meanwhile, representatives of Ottawa and Washington discussed the return of the American Indians to their own country, and the Americans sent commissioners to negotiate with Sitting Bull. But Sitting Bull was taking no chances, and it was not until 1881 that the Sioux were persuaded to return to the United States.

Throughout the period of greatest tension, Chief Crowfoot of the Blackfeet and the NWMP continued to be friends and allies. In 1877, the Lieutenant-Gov-

ernor of the Northwest Territories and the Commissioner of the NWMP represented Canada in treaty negotiations with Crowfoot and his brother chiefs concerning 50,000 square miles of land near the Foothills occupied by the Blackfeet, Bloods, Piegans and Sarcees. When the treaty was signed, Crowfoot said that the NWMP had protected the Canadian Indians "as the feathers of the bird protect it from the frosts of winter".

In 1871, British Columbia had entered Confederation. One condition of entry was that the Canadian Government would build a railway to the west coast. Railway construction began in 1875 and was completed in 1885. The construction work brought 4,000 or more labourers, not all of them gentle characters, to the prairies.

The promise of a railway also brought an increasing number of settlers. Few, if any, in those days realized that the prairies would be one of the world's greatest granaries. A survey of the region's fertility had been made as early as 1860 by Captain John Palliser but his findings have become famous only in retrospect. At the time, a large proportion of those who made their way into the region reasoned that if the plains and the Foothills could support such huge herds of buffalo, they must be magnificent cattle ranching country. Many of those early settlers drove the breeding stock for their future herds across the plain, ahead of their Red River carts.



Beef Cattle at Fort Macleod

The ranchers discovered that the country was fertile but they did not exploit it. Nor did they encourage other settlers who might wish to become grain-growers or mixed farmers. Like the fur-traders before them, the ranchers looked upon settlement as a threat to their economic security. Their vast ranches were on crown lands, rented from the government for one cent an acre a year. A rancher was permitted to rent up to 100,000 acres. Settlement would, of course, upset this arrangement.

But the settlers came into the country whether the ranchers liked it or not. The Canadian Government adopted the policy of granting farm-size blocks of public

land free to new farmers on condition that the lands were actually farmed and developed continuously for a certain number of years. The Canadian Pacific Railway Company also had a large area available for settlement. In disposing of portions of this land it wisely encouraged types of settlement that would eventually increase both freight and passenger traffic.

An Act of the Canadian Parliament in 1882 set up four administrative districts within the North West Territories. These districts were given the names of Saskatchewan, Athabasca, Assiniboia and Alberta. This was the first time the name *Alberta* was used on a Canadian map. It was given to the newly outlined district in honour of Princess Louise Alberta, wife of the Marquis of Lorne, who was Governor General of Canada.

Increasing settlement led to renewed unrest among the Métis and Indians. Once again the basic cause of the trouble was failure to explain clearly that the allotment of land to new settlers would not jeopardize the more or less informally occupied holdings of the earliest residents. Louis Riel came back from exile in the United States to fan the unrest into flames. The result was the North West Rebellion of 1885, begun in March and suppressed by May of the same year by the North West Mounted Police and regiments from both Eastern and Western Canada.


PÈRE LACOMBE, O. M. I.
THE CREE INDIANS CALLED HIM;
KAMIYO-ATCHAKWÊT;
"THE NOBLE SOUL."
FATHER LACOMBE, O. M. I.
A MISSIONARY & PIONEER OF THE NORTHWEST.
FOR 67 YEARS HE LABORED FOR GOD, HIS FELLOWMEN AND HIS COUNTRY.
BORN IN QUEBEC 1827, CAME TO THE WEST
UN MISSIONNAIRE & PIONNIER DU NORD-OUEST.
PENDANT 67 ANS IL SE DÉPENSA POUR DIEU, SON PROCHAIN ET SON PAYS.
NÉ DANS QUÉBEC 1827, VINT DANS L'OUEST

By the end of the nineteenth century, agricultural settlement had proceeded to the point where many districts with adequate rainfall were filling up and even some moisture-deficient areas of Alberta were being farmed. In the latter, the land had great fertility when there was enough rainfall, but results in dry years were disastrous. This led to the early introduction of irrigation where water could be led across the land from the rivers.

The pioneer irrigation system was in the Lethbridge district. By 1902, the C.P.R. had begun a 3,000,000-acre irrigation system west of Calgary. Today, Alberta's agriculture has a variety and stability it could not have without irrigation. There are now between 600 and 700 public and private irrigation systems in the province.

In the Census of 1901, Alberta—it was really at that time the administrative districts of Alberta and Athabasca —had a population of 73,022. Calgary was the largest town with a population of 4,392. Edmonton had 4,176.

In 1905 both Alberta and Saskatchewan became provinces. With one exception their new Provincial Governments exercised the same sovereignty as that enjoyed by the older provinces under the B.N.A. Act. The exception was in connection with crown or public lands.

Memorial to a Pioneer Missionary

Settlement

The Federal Government already had an effective system of land settlement and allotment of the public land, and it was decided in 1905 to retain this system and control for at least the time being. The transfer of the last public lands to the Province occurred in 1929.

The population grew rapidly. Alberta had 374,295 people in the 1911 Census and more than half a million by 1921. By 1941 the population stood at 796,169, of whom 489,583 were classified as rural and 306,586 as urban residents. The million mark was nearly reached in the 1951 Census and has almost certainly been passed since that time. The 1951 Census was the first in which urban population in Alberta exceeded the rural. Out of a total of 939,501, the number classified as rural was 488,188; the urban population was 449,675. This change reflects the amazing industrial development of the Province since the end of the Second World War.

Alberta, once it was opened for farming, was settled mainly by men and women who were already Canadians or Americans. Census figures show that over half a million Albertans give their ancestry as Scotch, Irish, English or French. Those of British Isles ancestry total 451,709; those of French ancestry, 56,185. But a considerable proportion of the former went to Alberta from families already settled in North America while the ancestors of many of the latter had Quebec roots going back in many cases for more than two centuries.

In short, Alberta was settled mainly by a migration of North Americans rather than by an influx of immigrants from overseas. Direct immigration from Europe was not, however, negligible.

Among the 451,709 Albertans today with British Isles ancestry, there would be a proportion whose fathers immigrated directly to Alberta. Direct immigration, rather than migration from Eastern Canada, would be a factor in the case of 107,985 Albertans of German racial background. This would also be the case with 86,957 of Ukrainian background, 70,929 of Scandinavian, 29,661 of Polish and 29,385 of Dutch. There are 21,163 native Indians in the province.

Alberta has a more northerly distribution of population than any other Canadian province. The most southerly parts of all the western provinces are, of course, closer to the North Pole than Kirkland Lake or Timmins in Ontario, Noranda or Roberval in Quebec or Bonavista in Newfoundland. In the Eastern Provinces, settlement north of a line through Timmins, Noranda and Bonavista is sparse indeed. But in Alberta the statistical hub of population is not far south of Edmonton; and Edmonton is farther north than Goose Bay in Labrador.

Another characteristic of the distribution of population in Alberta is its spottiness, the result of climatic and economic factors. The dry belt in the southeast

corner is thinly populated. There is a strip of fairly dense rural population between Medicine Hat and Lethbridge and a region of perhaps even greater density between Lethbridge and the Foothills; in these districts population densities vary with the irrigation systems.

Calgary is a nodal point of population because of ranching and farming, and more recently because of industry, particularly the oil industry. There are smaller nodal points growing rapidly, in most cases because of oil, all the way from Calgary to Edmonton. But the considerable region east of Calgary is comparatively less thickly settled all the way to the Saskatchewan border. An even larger region east of Edmonton is as uniformly and thickly settled as the Saskatchewan region into which it merges.

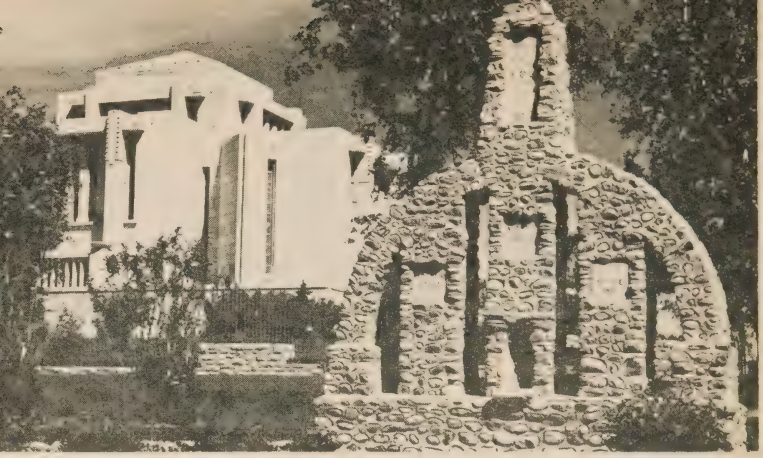
Meanwhile, Edmonton itself is one of the fastest growing cities in Canada; and its recent rapid population increase has had comparatively little to do with agriculture. During the Second World War it became of great importance as a military, aviation, transportation, communications and distribution centre, mainly for the far north. Post-war developments have turned it into one of the world's outstanding petroleum centres. That in turn has tremendously stimulated its industrial growth, mainly through the founding of many new industries based on or connected with petroleum.



Cutting Hay in the Foothills

When you think of the Prairie Provinces as the great plains, the picture that springs to mind fits only in spots. Less than a third of Manitoba is what a person usually thinks of as a plain or prairie. About 50 to 60 per cent of Saskatchewan justifies the word "plain". Alberta is nearly 90 per cent plain, although only a fraction of it looks like typical prairie.

In the northeast corner there is a small Precambrian region, similar in aspect to much of the northern parts of Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario and Quebec. In the southwest corner is some of the most spectacular scenery of the Rocky Mountains. Only in the southern part of the Province, between the Foothills on the west



Mormon Cairn and Temple at Cardston

and the Saskatchewan boundary on the east, is there prairie that looks like prairie. North of that, as in all three of the plains provinces, there are trees.

Deep river valleys, glacial in origin, are, in fact, the most striking surface feature of the Alberta plain. Since they go down rather than up, they do not detract from the feeling of flat immensity of the land as one stands on an Alberta farm and looks toward both the horizon and infinity.

All the hills seem comparatively low in Alberta because, as you stand on a clear day anywhere in the western quarter of the province—and most Alberta days are clear—you can glance to the west and see the Rocky Mountains. Behind the Foothills, which you scarcely



Mission Church near the Peace River

notice, the two-miles-high jagged wall of the Rockies runs to the south and to the north as far as you can see. The Foothills, which seem so low by comparison, rise to 3,000 and 4,000 and in some cases even to 5,000 feet above sea level.

The northern part of Alberta is drained into the Arctic Ocean, the central part into Hudson Bay, and a small area in the southern part of the province into the Gulf of Mexico.

Near Lethbridge and Cardston, in the extreme southern part of Alberta, you can go up in an airplane and see in a single downward glance land that is drained to the northeast into Hudson Bay, and land that is drained to the south into the Gulf of Mexico.


Fort Chipewyan
Fort Vermilion
Peace River
Fort Mc Murray
Peace River
River


Athabasca River
EDMONTON
Leduc
Wainwright
North Saskatchewan
Jasper
THE FOOTHILLS
ROCKY MOUNTAINS
Rocky Mountain House
Red Deer
Drumheller
Lake Louise
Banff
CALGARY
Red Deer R.
S. Saskatchewan R.
ALBERTA
Medicine Hat
Macleod
Lethbridge
Cardston
Waterton Lakes
50 0 50 100 150
miles

Rocky Mountains

The total area of all Alberta lakes is not much more than 6,500 square miles. But their fame is not proportional to their size. Because of their exceptional beauty in their mountain settings, such names as Lake Louise and Maligne Lake and the Waterton Lakes are internationally known.

The Rocky Mountains and, of course, also the various ranges in British Columbia between the Rockies and the Pacific Ocean, have a profound influence on the climate of Alberta and indeed upon the entire region of the great mid-continental plains.

Warm, moisture-laden air flows in at sea level from the Pacific and the mountains force it to rise, become chilled and drop much of its moisture. The clouds are wrung out three times, first by the Coast Range, second by the Columbia Mountains in the south and the Cassiar-Omineca Mountains in the north, and finally by the Rocky Mountains. Enough of the final squeeze occurs over the western edge of Alberta to give the Foothills adequate rainfall for vigorous forest growth.

But there is moisture deficiency in a considerable area in the southeast corner of Alberta and a smaller area of the southwest corner of Saskatchewan. In that district ten additional inches of precipitation would be needed to balance the summer evaporation.

A short distance to the west of this "dry belt", there is still very considerable moisture deficiency but irrigation has resulted in farms of extraordinary fertility.

Another great influence on Alberta climate is altitude. Since average temperatures are usually lower as land surface height rises above sea level, this means, in Alberta at least, that the effects of latitude are more or less compensated for by the effects of altitude. For example, Edmonton is about 200 miles north of Calgary, but Calgary has about 1,400 feet more altitude than Edmonton. As a result, they usually have about the same temperature both in summer and in winter.

Rainfall, temperature, the number of days of summer sunlight and other factors combine with soil characteristics to determine the agricultural potentialities of a district. There are four major soil zones in Alberta, each, in combination with climate, producing a different type of farming environment.

Genuine short and mixed grass prairies occupy only the southern fifth or sixth of the Alberta Plain. The "Aspen Grove" region begins a few miles north of Calgary. Its characteristics are scattered clumps of deciduous softwoods, wherever there is a little extra moisture in the soil, together frequently with continuous strips of woodland in the river valleys. At Edmonton, the Aspen



Winter Sports

region shades into a mixture of broad-leaved and evergreen trees, the so-called "mixed wood" region, which in the west, extends into the Northwest Territories. Poplar and spruce, west and north of Edmonton, are excellent pulpwoods. The northeast corner of the Province is coniferous forest land.

Altogether, Alberta has two and a half times as much useful timber as Saskatchewan, nearly five times as much as Manitoba and about a fifth as much as Ontario or Quebec.

Alberta has been regarded as one of the principal agricultural provinces of Canada for the past two generations, but in the last fifteen years its spectacular mineral wealth, especially its petroleum, has, in the public mind at least, far overshadowed all other kinds of primary resources and products.

This does not mean that Alberta agriculture has become negligible. On the contrary, it is continuing to expand. Annually in Alberta more than 14 million acres are planted in field crops. No other province except Saskatchewan seeds an area even remotely approaching this. In Saskatchewan, the field-crop area annually planted is the staggering total of almost 23 million acres—which is about equal to the combined planted area of Quebec, Ontario and Manitoba.



A Self-propelled Combine

On the livestock side, Alberta raises more cattle and also more hogs than any of the other provinces except Ontario and Quebec. Ontario is the only province exceeding Alberta's production of sheep.

The farmers of Alberta have about $1,800 million invested in their lands and buildings, implements, machinery and livestock. Only in Ontario and Saskatchewan is there a greater capital investment in agriculture. And only in Ontario, Saskatchewan and Quebec is there a greater annual income from farming.

The discovery of oil at Leduc, about 23 miles south of Edmonton, in 1947, was possibly one of the most sig-

nificant mineral finds in the course of all Canadian economic history.

If uranium at Great Bear Lake, nickel at Sudbury and iron in northern Labrador and Quebec may be just as important from a long-range viewpoint, certainly no other discovery has ever had such an immediate and extensive economic effect both regionally and nationally.

In scarcely more than seven years the Province of Alberta has been transformed into one of the world's great petroleum producers — in an age when petroleum is one of the essentials of both industrial and military strength. In the same period, because of the oil, the economy of Alberta is well on its way to changing from a predominantly agricultural one to a predominantly industrial one.

A pipeline has been built to bring the oil from Edmonton across the Canadian prairies and a corner of the United States to Superior, Wisconsin, at the head of the Great Lakes, whence it is carried by tanker to the refineries of Eastern Canada. Another pipeline is being built from Edmonton to tide-water at Vancouver. A third, all-Canadian one to serve Ontario and Quebec is projected. A huge petrochemical industry—it uses oil as a raw material — has sprung up almost overnight at Edmonton. Calgary is regarded as a more exciting oil



Oil Refinery at Edmonton

town than Dallas or Houston. Canada, long accustomed to pay out many millions in foreign exchange for oil, is rapidly becoming self-sufficient in this commodity.

The oil discoveries have been accompanied by almost equally tremendous discoveries of natural gas in

Alberta. So great are the known reserves that negotiations are now reaching a final stage for a pipeline to bring some of the gas to the industries and homes of Eastern Canada.

Meanwhile, Alberta has almost unbelievably large reserves of petroleum in another form, the famous tar sands near Fort McMurray along the Athabasca River. It has been estimated that there is enough petroleum there to supply all of North America for many generations. The hitch is that it is very difficult to separate the petroleum from the sand. A great deal of research has been done on the problem and results have been obtained which suggest that, long before Alberta's underground supplies of oil have been exhausted, an economically feasible way will be found to extract the oil from the almost limitless tar sands.

Alberta not only leads all the Canadian provinces in the production of petroleum and natural gas; it is also the leading Canadian producer of coal, mining more than 40 per cent of the entire Canadian output. As a matter of fact, Alberta's coal production has a greater annual value than the natural gas. The theoretical reserves of coal may be even more spectacular than the reserves of oil in the tar sands of the Athabasca. Like oil, coal is now believed to underlie a large proportion of the Province. It is feasible to mine it, however, only in

certain regions. Annual production for the whole Province has averaged about eight million tons throughout the past decade as compared with about six million tons for Nova Scotia, the only other really large Canadian coal producer.

Oil, coal and natural gas account for about 95 per cent of the total value of Alberta's mineral production which in 1952 was $197,333,166. Incidentally, this compares with a total value of $767 million for all agricultural production in the Province in the same year. Clay products, mainly brick and tile, cement, sand and gravel make up most of the remaining five per cent of Alberta's mineral production.

The Alberta lumber industry employs about 8,000 people and produces 400 million board feet of lumber a year with an annual value of about $16 million. Timber surveys, still far from complete, indicate that there are reserves of nearly twelve billion board feet of softwoods and more than five billion board feet of hardwoods. In addition, there is a very considerable amount of pulpwood. Forests cover about half Alberta's area but the trees are not of commercial size except in about 60,000 square miles. There are 1,000 sawmills, 50 planing mills, seven box factories and 35 furniture factories in Alberta.

About 5,000 persons are employed in the Alberta fishing industry at the peak of the season. Whitefish, lake trout, perch and tullibee are among the important species caught. Commercial fishing, while not a major industry, is growing and already about 20 per cent of the catch is exported to the United States.

On the manufacturing side, many of Alberta's products are processed from her own primary products or natural resources. There are more than 60 flour and feed mills in the Province. The largest flour mill in Western Canada is at Calgary. Another plant in that city makes rolled oats, oatmeal and pot and pearl barley. Porridge cereal and pancake flour are made at Camrose. Linseed oil, linseed meal and oil cake are made in Medicine Hat. Alberta's fifteen meat packing plants have a total production valued at more than a hundred million dollars annually. There are well over a hundred butter, cheese and condensed milk factories. Four tanneries produce leather and eight other plants manufacture leather products. Three sugar refineries, using sugar beets grown in the irrigated districts of southern Alberta, are located at Raymond, Picture Butte and Taber. There are vegetable canning plants at Lethbridge, Coaldale, Taber, Magrath and Brooks. Spaghetti and macaroni are made at Lethbridge.

Railways

About four and a half million dollars worth of furs are trapped in the north or raised on Alberta fur farms annually. Most are sent out of the Province in the raw state; nevertheless there are eight small local industries producing fur products of one kind or another.

Another type of manufacturing based on a local natural product is the pottery industry at Medicine Hat. In this case the natural resource is gas for firing the pottery kilns. The clays are shipped in mainly from the neighbouring Province of Saskatchewan.

There are 34 plants manufacturing textiles and textile products, mostly from imported raw materials, but aggregate production has not been very great. However, the new chemical industry that is arising largely through the availability of petroleum, may, in the course of time, make Alberta not only self-sufficient in certain types of synthetic textile fibres but the main source of supply for all Canada. One of the new chemical plants has cost $55 million to build.

Alberta is served by two transcontinental railways, the C.N.R. and the C.P.R. The Canadian Pacific main line crosses the southern part of the Province from Medicine Hat to Banff. Calgary is the largest city on this line. The main line of the Canadian National enters the central part of the Province near Wainwright, swings slightly north through Edmonton and emerges into British Col-



Herbert Lake on Banff-Jasper Highway

umbia through Jasper National Park. A network of both C.P.R and C.N.R. feeder lines criss-crosses the southern half of Alberta.

The northern half of the Province is served more sparsely by railways. There is a line from Edmonton to the Peace River district and the southern end of the Alaska Highway, and two other lines, both also from Edmonton, run to Athabasca and to Fort McMurray on the Athabasca River.

Highways are something else again. In spite of the comparative ease of road building on the plains and an almost illimitable supply of excellent ready-mixed paving material in the tar sands of the Athabasca, Alberta has very little pavement. There are about 1,200 miles of bituminous-surfaced roads in Alberta and there are more than 17,000 miles of gravel roads, many of which are very good.

Air Lines

Air transportation, by contrast, is almost the most advanced and highly developed in Canada. The modern age in the Canadian north owes much of its rapid progress to airmen and in particular to bush pilots. And for the past quarter-century Edmonton has been the bush pilot's capital. Such names as "Punch" Dickins and "Wop" May are legendary in Edmonton.

In the Second World War, Edmonton became one of the world's most congested military airports serving both the Canadian air stations along the Northwest Staging Route and the American air bases in Alaska. It has continued to develop enormously as an air centre. Certain American airlines use it as a refuelling stop on the way to Alaska, while Canadian Pacific Airlines makes it a base from which to serve the entire Canadian northwest all the way to Aklavik and Coppermine on the Arctic Ocean.

Two main routes of Trans-Canada Airlines cross Alberta, one by way of Edmonton, the other by way of Calgary. Another north and south route links Lethbridge, Calgary and Edmonton. Edmonton will be a port of call on a new Scandinavian airline between California and Northern Europe

There is a great deal of charter flying for mines, prospectors and sportsmen, much of it from Edmonton.

Alberta has more than 125,000 telephones in a provincially-owned province-wide system. The Province is also served by the two major telegraph companies, the Canadian National and the Canadian Pacific. Additionally there are Federal Government telegraph lines serving the Athabasca and the Peace River districts.

The Provincial Government of Alberta consists of the Lieutenant-Governor, the Executive Council (or Cabinet) and the Legislative Assembly. There are 61 members of the Alberta Legislative Assembly. Unless an earlier dissolution of the Assembly occurs, they are elected for a maximum term of five years.

Politically, Alberta became internationally famous in 1935 when it became the first state or province anywhere in the world to elect a government based on the then novel political philosophy of Social Credit. The Social Credit Party has been in power provincially ever since.

In its early days as a Province, the electors of Alberta regularly supported the two older Canadian political parties, the Conservatives and the Liberals. But Alberta began to show originality in provincial politics as long ago as 1921. In that year a United Farmers' government was formed, and farmers' governments continued in power until the Social Credit Party took office.

Courts of Law

Alberta's Provincial Government has another claim to originality: it obtains much of its revenues from sources other than taxation. Government income from oil leases on crown lands has, during the past few years, been tremendous. It has consequently been possible to keep provincial taxation at a low level while holding the Province itself in an extremely favourable financial position.

Law in Alberta is administered by a Provincial Supreme Court operating in two divisions through ten judicial districts; by two District Courts, having responsibilities junior to the Supreme Court in each of the same ten judicial districts; and by a series of Magistrates' Courts in some ninety cities, towns and villages.

The judicial districts in Alberta are an outgrowth of the fact that the Prairie Provinces never organized county administrations as did the older Eastern Provinces. Sittings of the trial division of the Supreme Court of Alberta are held in the various headquarters of the judicial districts just as sittings of the trial division of the Supreme Court of Ontario are held in the court houses of the county towns. The two Alberta District Courts, one for southern Alberta, the other for the northern part of the Province, correspond more or less in jurisdiction and responsibility to the County Courts of Ontario with the difference, of course, that they are migratory.

Alberta has no provincial police force of its own. Instead, the Province has an agreement with the Federal authority whereby the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, in addition to their federal duties, enforce provincial laws and the criminal code in rural districts and even by further agreement in some of the urban centres. Among the larger Alberta towns where municipal policing is carried out by the RCMP are Drumheller, Red Deer, Vegreville, High Prairie and Vermilion. The larger centres have, of course, their own locally organized municipal police forces.

Alberta has a daily attendance of about 150,000 children in more than 6,000 elementary and secondary school classrooms. On the average, their teachers are the highest-salaried in Canada with the exception of the teachers of British Columbia. About 3,500 other children attend private schools.

The Province has three residential schools of Agriculture and Home Economics. Located at Olds, Vermilion and Fairview, they provide specialized training for many who do not attend degree courses in these subjects at the provincial university.

The senior educational institution is the provincial university, the University of Alberta at Edmonton. With a branch at Calgary, the University has seven faculties, Arts and Science, Law, Engineering, Medicine, Agricul-

ture, Education and Dentistry. Four schools of the University teach Pharmacy, Nursing, Household Economics and Commerce. There is a Graduate School where studies in many subjects are carried to the doctoral level.

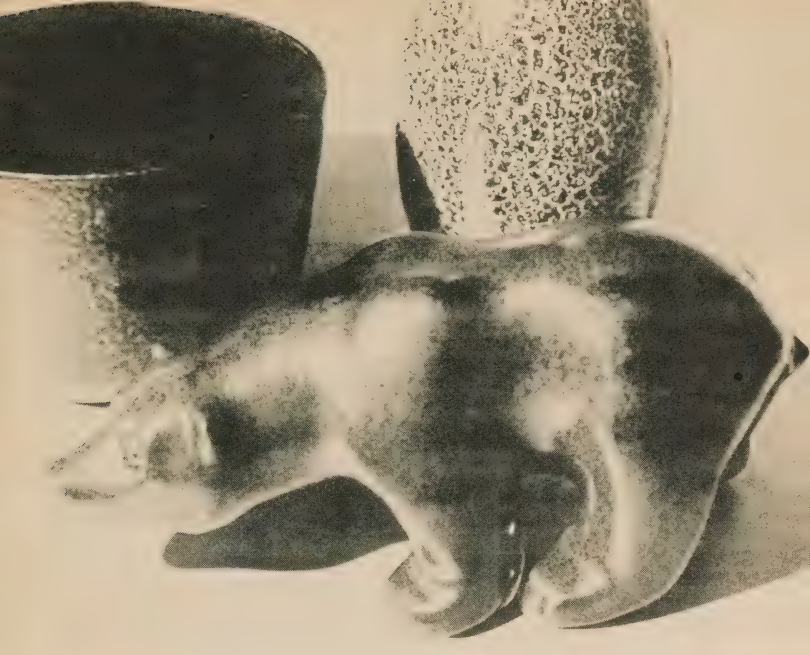
Training of all Alberta school teachers, both elementary and secondary, is centralized in the Faculty of Education of the University. There are no normal schools or regional teachers' colleges as there are in some of the eastern provinces.

Two theological colleges are affiliated with the University of Alberta.

Alberta ranks among the important art centres of Canada partly because of the nation-wide prestige of the Banff Summer School of Fine Arts. The Banff school is a project of the University of Alberta which has been a national leader in many aspects of adult education. The combination of Banff's magnificent scenic setting and outstanding instructors has attracted art students from all parts of the country.

Alberta has two art galleries, the Allied Arts Centre and Art Gallery at Calgary and the Museum of Arts at Edmonton. There are additional art exhibits in Edmonton arranged by the University of Alberta.

A direct interest in the arts is taken by the Provincial Government through the Cultural Activities Branch



Alberta Ceramics

of the Department of Economic Affairs. Four boards are organized in connection with this Branch, the Alberta Music Board, the Alberta Visual Arts Board, the Alberta Drama Board and the Alberta Library Board.

Meanwhile, various individual Alberta artists are having an increasing impact upon Canadian art generally. While it cannot be said that any special style or school of Alberta art has developed, there are indications of



Downtown Section of Edmonton

something like a regional trend. Some Alberta artists are beginning to get into their work more and more of the feeling of the immensity of the great plains and are being recognized elsewhere throughout the country for this specialized interpretative approach.

Edmonton, the provincial capital, is generally regarded as the fastest-growing city in Canada. Between the Census of 1941 and that of 1951 the population increase of the city and its suburbs was almost 70 per cent. This metropolitan area had 173,075 inhabitants in 1951, making it Canada's eighth largest population centre. The

current annual growth rate is about seven per cent a year. The present estimated population is now over the 200,000 mark.

Agriculture, oil, industries based on oil, and transportation, more or less in the order named, have been the stimulating influences in the rapid growth. The city is located on either side of the North Saskatchewan River which curves through the metropolitan area in a valley 200 feet deep.

Founded as a fur trading post in 1808, Edmonton had a population of 2,626 by the time of the 1901 Census but took a tremendous jump to 24,900 by 1911 during the first great rush of Alberta farm settlement.

The Alberta Legislative Buildings and the buildings of the University of Alberta are among the conventional points of interest in Edmonton, but the current spirit of the place is perhaps better exemplified by huge new chemical plants and by two of the country's busiest airports, whence military, commercial and bush-flying planes take off every few minutes for scores of new developments in Canada's Far North.

Alberta's second city, Calgary, ranks tenth in population among Canadian cities. It, too, has had a rapid recent growth.

Calgary was founded in 1875 as a North West Mounted Police post with the name of Fort Brisebois.

Calgary

A year later the name was changed to Fort Calgary. Early growth was slow in contrast with later development. By 1881 the community consisted of the Mounted Police barracks, the house of the commanding officer, a Hudson's Bay Company trading post and one other store.

Then the Canadian Pacific Railway reached Calgary and a year later the community was incorporated as a town with a population of 500. Two or three years more and stockyards were established. Calgary became the cow town and cattle-shipping centre for the Foothills region. It is still the cow town for all North America once each year in the famous Calgary Stampede.

The city is located at the confluence of the Bow and the Elbow Rivers. An island in the Bow River is the site of Dinosaur Park where life-size models of the extinct great reptiles of ancient Alberta are on display. Calgary gets its city water supply from the Elbow and its hydro-electric power supply from the Bow. Even before the Bow leaves the city limits, part of its water is diverted into the canals of the great irrigation system which made the region immediately east of Calgary one of the most fertile in the West.

Everybody in Calgary sees the Rocky Mountains fifty miles away nearly every day of his life, so clear is the air and so few the cloudy or misty days. Banff National Park is 85 miles by rail or a good highway.

Like Edmonton, Calgary is a centre of Alberta's oil industry. Indeed, compared with Edmonton, it is a veteran oil town. The Turner Valley, which started Alberta on the way to oil wealth, is only a short distance from Calgary.

Modern industrial Calgary has about 250 factories. Although none is in the size range of the huge new chemical plants of Edmonton, their output includes petroleum and chemical products, milled grain products, dairy products and metal products. The city is an important rail centre, especially for the C.P.R. which has important shops and yards there and more than 100 miles of track within the city limits. It is also Alberta's leading wholesale distributing point.

Lethbridge, on the Oldman River about 140 miles southeast of Calgary, is Alberta's third city. It is the centre of an important ranching, grain-growing and specialty crop area. The original name of the community was Coal Banks. Coal was discovered there and mined as early as 1872, and coal-mining is still an activity of the region. The irrigation of regional farmlands and the growing of such crops as sugar beets have, however, contributed more to the city's recent economic development.

Fourth in size among the Alberta cities is Medicine Hat, in the Province's dry southeast corner. The "Hat" is essentially something of an oasis in a desert or, if you

like, an irrigated city. Located on the south bank of the South Saskatchewan River, which is 1,000 feet wide there, it has, of course, a plentiful water supply. In contrast to the dry and sometimes scorched appearance of the surrounding country, the streets of Medicine Hat are tree-lined and its parks and lawns are green.

Natural gas provides cheap heat for homes and easily-controlled and also cheap heat and power for industrial purposes. Aside from flour-milling, the main industries are the manufacture of pottery and various other fired clay products. The cheap natural gas is the ideal fuel for the pottery and tile kilns.

Red Deer, with a population of about 7,500, on the railway line between Edmonton and Calgary, is in a wheat-growing and mixed farming area. It has a number of dairy, woodworking and machine shop industries.

Drumheller, with a population of about 2,600, is curiously enough better known by name throughout Canada than several Alberta towns that are considerably larger. Perhaps the reason is the memorable sounding place-name or it may be because the town is one of Alberta's most important coal mining centres.

Photos in this pamphlet supplied by courtesy of Alberta Government

HOW TO USE THIS PAMPHLET

ALBERTA

This is Article No. 14 in the CITIZENSHIP SERIES of CURRENT AFFAIRS pamphlets.

Read this pamphlet carefully, make notes and follow a definite plan in presenting your material in the Discussion Hour.

The headings in the pamphlet are arranged so that you can present your material in an orderly manner.

Place-names can be found on the accompanying map which should be referred to frequently so as to familiarize the group with the geography of the Province.

The following questions are suggested for discussion at the end of the presentation of your material:

1. Why is Alberta's geological past so important in the Province's economy today?
2. What part was played by the Hudson's Bay Company and the North West Company in the development of Alberta?
3. What was the contribution of the NWMP to the history of Alberta?
4. What are Alberta's resources and industries?
5. What part does agriculture play in the economy of Alberta?

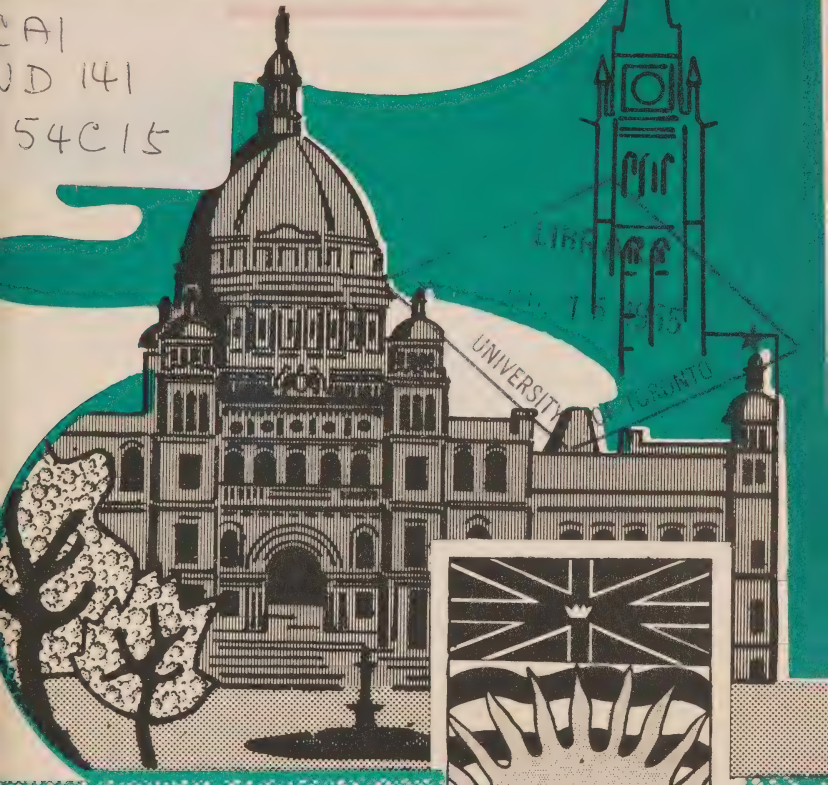
Do not forget to make a summary of the discussion in the last five minutes of the hour.

EDMOND CLOUTIER, C.M.G., O.A., D.S.P.
QUEEN'S PRINTER AND CONTROLLER OF STATIONERY, OTTAWA, 1954


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Citizenship

No. 15

FOR THE CANADIAN FORCES

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Publicati

The fifteenth of a series of pamphlets on Canadian Citizenship, prepared especially for the Armed Forces by the Bureau of Current Affairs.

The Province of British Columbia

No. 15

BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, CANADA

Introduction

In a foreword to the first of the regular series of *Current Affairs* pamphlets issued in October, 1951, the Minister of National Defence stated that service personnel "should know as much as possible about Canada . . .".

Accordingly, the Bureau of Current Affairs has initiated a series of citizenship pamphlets. In this series five have been published to date dealing with the following topics:—

The Canadian Constitution
How Parliament Works
Local Government
The Serviceman and His Vote
The Public Service of Canada.

We are now issuing citizenship pamphlets which tell about the ten provinces of Canada and Yukon and the Northwest Territories. This material will supplement the first five pamphlets.

We sincerely hope that service personnel will obtain a broader understanding and deeper appreciation of their country from a study and discussion of this material.

HARRY R. LOW
Director, Bureau of Current Affairs

The Province of British Columbia

British Columbia was probably "discovered" by Spanish explorers in the early 18th Century. Sailing north from the Spanish settlements in California, they saw Vancouver Island and possibly also some of the mainland in the vicinity of Vancouver.

Spanish place-names, such as the Strait of Juan de Fuca, do not always represent confirmed recorded discoveries; some of them are merely in commemoration of early visits which are rather hazily described in historical records. For example, Captain Juan de Fuca's name was not given to the strait at the south end of Vancouver Island until it was placed on a map in 1786-87 by Captain Barkley, an English explorer. There are, however, authenticated records of Spanish explorations by Perez, Heceta (or Hecate) and Quadra in 1774-75.

The most important early exploration of the Canadian west coast by sea was carried out by Captain James Cook who sailed northward, after visiting Australia, New Zealand and the Hawaiian Islands, in an

attempt to find the long-sought North West Passage back to England. Cook discovered Cape Flattery, then cruised north in 1778 along the west shoreline of Vancouver Island and landed at Nootka Sound. There he traded knives and buttons for bear, wolf, fox, deer and sea-otter skins.

Sailing still farther north he found the Queen Charlotte Islands and gave to the southernmost large island of the group a series of place-names which he had already bestowed upon various parts of Australia. He continued his voyage along the coast of Alaska and into Bering Strait. By that time he felt certain that no practical North West Passage existed; and, indeed, no successful navigation of a North West Passage occurred until the Royal Canadian Mounted Police ship, *St. Roch*, sailed it from west to east in 1940-42 and from east to west in 1944.

Captain Cook then turned south to the Hawaiian Islands where he was killed by the natives. One of his ships, however, came back to the British Columbia coast the following year to trade for furs with the Indians.

Nootka Sound was visited in 1787 by Captain John Meares of England. Meares acquired land on which to build a trading post. In exchange for the land, the Indians were given ten sheets of copper.

Meares used the site of his trading post as North America's first west coast shipyard. He and his men built a 30-ton schooner there for use in coastal trading with the Indians. They called the schooner the *North West America.* Then loading his larger ship with furs and timber he set sail for China where he was assured of a lucrative market for at least the furs.

In May, 1789, Martinez, a Spanish captain, sailed into Nootka, captured the *North West America,* occupied the trading post, seized two hundred otter skins and formally took possession of the land in the name of Spain.

But the capture was only briefly effective. The territory was restored to Britain by the Nootka Convention. In 1792, Spain sent Don Bodega y Quadra and Britain sent Captain George Vancouver to Nootka to work out the details of the restoration.

Before going to Nootka, Vancouver circumnavigated the island that is now called by his name; en route, he gave the names of various members of his crew to Puget Sound, Burrard Inlet, Johnstone Strait, Mount Baker and Mount Rainier. The representative of Spain and the representative of Britain found themselves unable to agree in their negotiations, and Vancouver waited for further orders from England. He put in the time of waiting in further exploration of the coastline.

Alexander Mackenzie

Meanwhile, the fur-traders of the North West Company were pushing on overland in advance of the fur-traders of the Hudson's Bay Company in their explorations of the plains and the western mountains. In 1792, Alexander Mackenzie was beginning the most important overland journey of exploration in the history of Western Canada. His ascent of the headwaters of the Peace River, the crossing of the continental divide, then the descent through the mountains to the Pacific were completed in the summer of 1793, when he arrived on the shores of Queen Charlotte Sound near Bella Coola. The Indian chief from whom he borrowed a cedar canoe, 45 feet long, for the last stage of his journey, told him that a dozen years before he had been in the same canoe when he saw two large vessels filled with white men who had received him in a kindly manner.

Cook had reported that the Indians of the sea coast adorned their canoes with human teeth, but Mackenzie, in his journal, said the canoe he borrowed was decorated with the teeth of the sea otter and gently concluded that Cook's "mistake arose from the very great resemblance there is between human teeth and those of the sea otter".

The interior of British Columbia was explored by another fur-trader, David Thompson, between 1800 and 1811. His name has been given to the Thompson River. The Fraser River got its name from Simon Fraser who

paddled down that river to its mouth in 1808 and was thus perhaps the first white person to reach, from the east, the site where the city of Vancouver was to be built.

About 400 miles to the south, Lewis and Clark, the most famous of the American overland explorers, reached the Pacific by way of the Columbia River in 1805 — twelve years after Mackenzie arrived at Bella Coola. The journey of the American explorers was followed by the establishment of small settlements on the coast between the mouths of the Columbia and the Fraser Rivers. Soon there were bitter disputes between the American settlers and the Canadian fur-traders.

By 1818, the boundary between the United States and the British territory to the north in the prairie region had been fixed as the 49th parallel of latitude. But the boundary from the Rockies to the Pacific was still not finally determined.

The American settlers in the Oregon region wanted the boundary to run far to the north of them at 54 degrees, 40 minutes north latitude. That would have placed it in the vicinity of Prince Rupert, and would have made all of the southern part of British Columbia territory of the United States.

Agitation for the 54 degrees, 40 minutes boundary reached such a pitch that it brought the United States

and Canada closer to armed conflict than at any time since the War of 1812. The Oregon sentiment crystallized into the famous slogan "54 40 or fight", but negotiations resulted in the Oregon Treaty of 1846 which settled the question.

The Oregon Treaty defined the boundary as the 49th parallel of north latitude from the Rockies to the Pacific, and from there the boundary ran through the southern channel separating Vancouver Island from the mainland of the continent and then through the middle of the Strait of Juan de Fuca to the open ocean.

Incidentally, the Hudson's Bay Company for a short time, governed Oregon and used a site on the Columbia River as its western headquarters but moved subsequently, in 1843, to the present site of Victoria on Vancouver Island.

The first organized government in British Columbia, other than Hudson's Bay Company rule, was on Vancouver Island rather than on the mainland. The Island was proclaimed a Crown Colony in 1849, and the little trading post of Victoria became its capital. The first governor was Richard Blanshard, who was succeeded by the chief factor of the Hudson's Bay Company, James Douglas. The first representative Assembly on the island was established in 1856, and the first permanent govern-

ment buildings, one of which is still standing in Victoria, were erected in 1859.

Meanwhile, small settlements had been developing on the mainland, where the country was known as New Caledonia. Gold was discovered along the Fraser River in 1858 and the rush of miners and new settlers quickly increased the population.

A different type of government from that provided by the Hudson's Bay Company became an immediate need, and New Caledonia was given Crown Colony status with the name of British Columbia.

Critical times followed during the next few years, especially when the gold mines in the Cariboo district were quickly worked out. In 1866, the British Government, ignoring opposition both in the Vancouver Island Colony and in the newer Colony of British Columbia on the mainland, merged the two colonies to reduce the cost of government. Victoria was named as the capital of the joint Colony and a Legislative Council of twenty-three representatives was set up in 1868.

British Columbia came into the Canadian Confederation as early as it did, in 1871, probably as a reaction against the forced union of the two colonies. A movement in favour of Confederation arose almost immediately. It was soon being argued that Confederation would produce

better overland communications with Eastern Canada, and that it would result in responsible government rather than an administration composed partly of elected members and partly of appointed officials. The result was that British Columbia became part of the new Canadian nation on July 20, 1871, scarcely more than a year after the entry of Manitoba into Confederation.

In the negotiations which brought British Columbia into Confederation, it was agreed that the construction of a transcontinental railway would be undertaken within two years. But the time required for preliminary surveys and long subsequent controversies over the route and the terminus on the Pacific, with all the other early difficulties of the C.P.R., made most of the people of British Columbia feel at one time or another that they were being rather badly treated in so far as the time element was concerned.

It was finally decided that the western terminus should be at Coal Harbour (now Vancouver) and on July 5, 1886, the first transcontinental train, with 150 passengers, reached nearby Port Moody at the head of Burrard Inlet. The following year, trains were running the entire distance into Vancouver.

At the time of entry into the Canadian nation, 1871, British Columbia's total population was 36,247. That was less than half the population of Prince Edward Island in 1871, but it was 11,000 more than the population of

Manitoba, the only other Western Province at that time. The Northwest Territories, which included the future Alberta and Saskatchewan, had a population of 48,000.

During the next two decades British Columbia's growth was steady but not spectacular. Manitoba during the same decades zoomed ahead in population—and incidentally continued to have more population than British Columbia until the 1941 Census. Starting to grow later, both Alberta and Saskatchewan had outstripped Manitoba and British Columbia by 1931, and indeed Saskatchewan was still ahead of all the other Western Provinces in population at the time of the 1941 Census. In 1951, however, British Columbia was the only one of the four with a population over the million mark—it was 1,165,210.

The conspicuous characteristic that emerges from a study of comparative population growth in the Western Provinces is that the increases on the prairies to a considerable extent came about as a result of sudden influxes of people, but the increase in British Columbia was consistently steady. People came to British Columbia as word of the agricultural possibilities of localized areas got back to Eastern Canada or to the British Isles, or as the fishing and lumbering industries were developed, or as new mining districts were discovered, or as enthusiasts about the climate wrote letters to their relatives. There

were no land settlement schemes on a vast scale, as was the case on the prairies, to attract attention throughout Europe. One result was that British Columbia was originally populated almost entirely by people hailing from Eastern Canada and the British Isles.

In Alberta and Saskatchewan, slightly fewer than half the people are officially listed for census purposes as of British Isles descent or origin; in British Columbia the proportion is about three-quarters. The proportion of French in the British Columbia population is not high, but it outnumbers all racial groups except the British, the Scandinavian and the German. There are 33,388 people in British Columbia of Netherlands origin or descent, according to the 1951 Census. The proportion of Polish and Ukrainian people in the population is conspicuously lower than in the Prairie Provinces.

Meanwhile, the descendants of the original inhabitants, the Indians, are slightly more numerous than in either Alberta or Saskatchewan. There are 28,478 of them. Their survival in such numbers is perhaps a reflection of the fact that they had developed several of the world's most interesting and diversified aboriginal cultures before the white man arrived and in some cases enjoyed a continuing isolation which enabled them to

Indian Fisherman

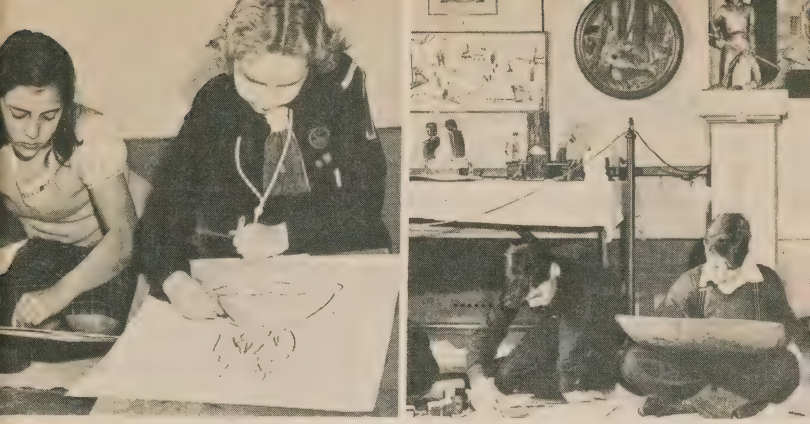


adjust rather more slowly and more successfully to the culture which the white man introduced. Indeed, in the case of some British Columbia Indian tribes the aboriginal cultures actually continued to advance and develop while elements of the white man's civilization were being slowly adopted. Moreover, the absorption of white civilization was no mere one-way traffic. Elements of Indian aesthetics have already exerted a profound influence upon some of British Columbia's best painters and writers.

Most notable among the sources of this influence has been the art of the Haida Indians of the Queen Charlotte Islands. Their sculpture is rated by anthropologists as among the finest art ever produced by any primitive people; and some of the best of it has been done since the coming of the white man.

Recently there have been signs of a tendency to re-evaluate Haida art, not in terms of the primitive but in terms of universal aesthetics. It is possible that critics may in time come up with the opinion that the Haidas have reached standards not yet attained by any other North American sculptors, no matter what their race.

More students are attending school and university in British Columbia than in any other of the provinces except Ontario and Quebec. The University of British Columbia, one of the largest universities in Canada, has an enrolment of more than 9,000 students. There are



Young Artists

some 165,000 children and young people in the publicly supported elementary and secondary schools, and an additional 10,000 in private schools and business colleges. The Indian schools have an enrolment of about 5,000.

The University of British Columbia, on a magnificent site overlooking the sea at Vancouver, consists of seven faculties, half a dozen schools and several affiliated colleges. There are faculties of Graduate Studies, Arts and Science, Applied Science, Agriculture, Law, Pharmacy, Medicine and Forestry. There are schools of Home Economics, Education, Commerce, Architecture, Nursing and Social Work. Victoria College in the provincial capital is an affiliated Arts college. There are two affiliated theological colleges in Vancouver, one Anglican, the other United Church.

Education

Ranking as another institution where Arts and Science instruction is of university standard, although at the junior level, is Royal Roads near Victoria, one of Canada's three Service Colleges. Originally established by the Royal Canadian Navy, it now, like R.M.C. at Kingston and Collège Militaire Royal de St-Jean, accepts cadets in training for all three of the Armed Services of Canada.

Teachers' training colleges in British Columbia are located in Vancouver and Victoria. There is a provincial normal school in each of these cities, while secondary school teachers may acquire their professional training at the University of British Columbia.

Among the highly specialized types of schools is the Vancouver School of Fine Arts. Another specialized educational institution is the Provincial School for the Deaf and the Blind at Vancouver.

In the Federal Parliament, British Columbia has a representation of 22 seats in the House of Commons and six seats in the Senate.

The Provincial Government consists of the Lieutenant-Governor and Executive Council or Cabinet, which currently consists of the Premier and ten other Ministers, and a Legislative Assembly of 48 members.

The present legislature—the 24th since the establishment of the Province—was elected on June 9, 1953. Party standing after the election was: Social Credit, 26; Co-operative Commonwealth Federation, 15; Liberals, 5; Progressive Conservatives, 1; Labour, 1.

Municipal government in British Columbia presents some surprises to the uninitiated who learn that a town of 2,000 or 3,000 is really a city and that a city of 60,000 may be merely a district. Burnaby, a suburb of Vancouver with a population of 58,376, is a "district municipality". Port Moody, another Vancouver suburb, with a population of 2,249, is a city. Armstrong, a town of 1,126 in Kamloops district, is another city. Dawson Creek, at the southern end of the Alaska Highway, has a population of 3,589 and is officially a village. But Enderby, with a population of 877, and Greenwood with a population of 809, are cities.

There are 35 cities, 49 villages and 29 district municipalities in the Province. The differences between them are obviously not based upon the popular conceptions of what constitutes a city or a village but upon the technical form of incorporation. However, the well-known larger centres of population such as Vancouver, Victoria and Prince Rupert are cities.

Law Courts

For judicial purposes, British Columbia is segmented into counties and judicial districts. The two senior courts of the Province are the Court of Appeal and the Supreme Court of British Columbia. The latter is the senior trial court; the former, of course, hears appeals from judgments and decisions of the Supreme Court and the lower courts. The Chief Justice of British Columbia is the presiding jurist of the Court of Appeal; he is assisted by four Justices of Appeal, one of whom is also the district judge in Admiralty. The senior judge of the British Columbia Supreme Court is designated as the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.

There are eight Puisne Judges of the Supreme Court.

British Columbia has some fifteen county court judges permanently located in the principal district population centres. There are also about 75 juvenile court judges and some 50 police magistrates.

The provincial police function, except in the incorporated municipalities, is exercised by the Royal Canadian Mounted Police who are engaged by the Province on a contract basis for this purpose. A considerable number of British Columbia municipalities also engage the RCMP on contract to do municipal police work. Other municipalities have their own locally organized municipal police forces.

Less than ten per cent of the surface of British Columbia is suitable for normal human occupation. The rest of it is too high, too steep or too rocky.

But the ten per cent of the country which is suitable for permanent settlement consists of some 30,000 square miles that are about as richly endowed with fertile soil, beneficent climate and other desirable natural aspects as any area of Canada. The remaining 300,000 square miles—the total area of the Province is 366,255 square miles—is also not without desirable endowments. If high altitudes and precipitous slopes make it a little difficult for ordinary settlement, the natural resources of forests, minerals and waterpower are so great that development is often worthwhile.

British Columbia is the third largest province in Canada, both in area and in population. The area is so great that the population density is only about three people to the square mile. In actual fact, of course, there are tens of thousands of square miles of British Columbia with no people at all in them. Roughly three-quarters of a million people are concentrated into the southwestern corner of the Province within a radius of about eighty to one hundred miles of Vancouver.

A considerable portion of the remaining twenty-five per cent of the people live in a series of smaller concentrated areas of settlement such as the Okanagan Valley.

Settlement

The chief characteristic of settlement in the Province is that it occurs where the land is sufficiently flat and fertile and the climate is mild.

At Vancouver itself, where almost exactly half of the entire population lives, other factors, mainly the magnificent natural harbour, influenced settlement; but, generally speaking, any reasonably flat area, even the quite small ones, drew settlers.

Physically, British Columbia consists of four fantastically huge (and dozens of smaller) folds in the earth's surface. The peaks of the four folds, looking at them from east to west, are, first, the Rocky Mountains, second, the Cassiar-Omineca and the Columbia Mountains, third, the Coast and the Cascade Mountains, and fourth, the Insular Mountains. The various folds run in a northwesterly direction, more or less parallel to each other. Between them are what the geographers call "trenches"—lower areas which from any particular point may look rough enough to be considered mountainous, but which, when viewed from a great height in the air, constitute fairly well-defined regions of lower altitude.

In the central part of the Province is a series of plateaus, between the Rockies, on the east and the Coast Mountains, on the west, preventing the Cassiar-Omineca Mountains and the Columbia Mountains from forming

a continuous system. The words "trench" and "plateau" should not be taken too literally. When you stand on certain parts of the Nechako Plateau or the Fraser Plateau, you are still in a fairly rough and rocky area.

British Columbia shares the Rockies and the Foothills between the Rockies and the Great Plains, with Alberta. It also has within its provincial boundary, much to the surprise of many who learn of it for the first time, about 30,000 or 40,000 square miles of the great plains region itself. This plains area is in the northeast corner of the Province and is continuous with the somewhat similar plains of the Peace River and Hay Lake regions of Alberta.

The Rockies, which rise out of Alberta on the east and British Columbia on the west, and extend southward through the United States virtually to the Rio Grande River, provide the Continental Divide. Drainage on their western side is to the Pacific Ocean. Drainage on the eastern side is to the Arctic Ocean, Hudson Bay and the Gulf of Mexico. The Continental Divide forms the eastern boundary between Alberta and British Columbia from the American Border northward for a distance of about 450 miles. Then the Alberta-British Columbia boundary follows the 120th meridian of longitude northward to the Northwest Territories at the 60th parallel of latitude, the Rockies continuing northward up the length of British Columbia into the Yukon.

Mount Robson

In the part of them which lies between Alberta and British Columbia, the Rockies rise to 10,000 feet or more, the highest peak being Mount Robson (12,972 feet) on the British Columbia side of the provincial boundary. There are three famous breaks or passes through them named, from north to south, the Yellowhead Pass, the Kicking Horse Pass and the Crow's Nest Pass. The lowest of these, 3,700 feet, is the Yellowhead Pass.

In this region the Rockies average about fifty miles in width. Farther north they are only about twenty-five miles wide and the peaks are considerably lower, most of them being around the five-thousand-foot level. The Peace River cuts through the Rockies in northern British Columbia through a pass that is only about 2,000 feet above sea level.

Immediately to the west of the Rockies is what the geographers call the Rocky Mountain Trench. It is one of the most unusual mountain features to be found anywhere in the world. This trench runs in an almost straight line from a point in Montana northward a distance of approximately 1,000 miles to the Liard Plain in northern British Columbia on the edge of the Yukon Territory. The bottom of the trench has an average height above sea level of only 2,500 feet. Its width is only from 2 to 10 miles.

Columbia Mountains

The Columbia Mountains rise out of the western side of the trench in southern British Columbia throughout a distance of about 400 miles north and south. To the west of the Columbia Mountains is the Fraser Plateau and to the northwest is the Nechako Plateau. Then the Cassiar-Omineca Mountains begin and run northward to the Liard Plain and into the Yukon. In the north, the Cassiars are separated from the Coast Mountains by the Stikine Plateau and also by the smaller mountain system of the Skeena-Hazeltons.

Incidentally, there are various ranges within the main mountain systems. For example, in the Columbia Mountains there are the Cariboo, the Purcell, the Monashee and the Selkirk Mountains. There is also a series of trenches such as the Yukon Trench and the Purcell Trench. In the southern part of the Fraser Plateau there is British Columbia's best-known trench. Geographers call it the Okanagan Trench but ordinary people speak of it as the Okanagan Valley, one of Canada's most famous fruit-growing districts.

Elevations throughout the two major plateaus of interior British Columbia range from about 6,000 feet over most of the Fraser Plateau to about 2,500 feet over much of the Nechako Plateau. The Fraser Plateau is the rougher of the two and it is deeply cut by a few extraordinary river valleys, some of them almost 4,000

feet deep, most of them tributaries of the Fraser River. By contrast, the river valleys of the Nechako Plateau are broad and shallow, and much of the area is well covered with fine-textured soil.

Running up the entire west side of British Columbia are the Coast Mountains. Starting at the Fraser River, they extend northward a thousand miles as an almost continuous rugged wall of granite. Just north of Vancouver there are peaks with an elevation of over 9,000 feet. A little farther north there are many peaks over 10,000 feet, with Mount Waddington, the highest peak in British Columbia, rising to 13,260 feet. They drop down considerably as one approaches Prince Rupert, and there the Skeena River has cut its spectacular gorge through them to the sea, but north of the Skeena they rise again to 8,000 feet and continue into the southwestern corner of the Yukon.

On their western side, the Coast Mountains give British Columbia its spectacular coastal scenery. In some places they rise straight out of the Pacific. Elsewhere, the Pacific extends into them for distances as great as eighty miles through narrow fiords which may be only two or three miles wide. The almost unbelievable number of islands along the coast are geographically peaks of this range where it sinks into the sea.

The large islands, Vancouver Island in the south and the Queen Charlottes farther north, are not, however, peaks of the Coast Mountains. Geographically, they belong to still another mountain range, the Insular Mountains. This range is separated from the Coast Mountains by the Coastal Trench.

Lower than most of the Coast Mountains, but still impressive, the Insular Mountains on Vancouver Island rise to 7,200 feet on the east-central side of the Island. On the Queen Charlotte Islands the mountains are lower but are also rougher in appearance than those of Vancouver Island. The highest peak is 3,945 feet.

In the southwestern corner of the Province, the Cascades add another mountain system to British Columbia's numerous ranges. They begin immediately south of the Fraser River Valley and extend southward into the State of Washington. Although the area they cover in Canada is comparatively small, it nevertheless comprises three distinct groups, the Skagit, the Hozomeen and the Okanagan Mountains. The Okanagan Mountains reach upward to 8,000 feet.

Agriculturally, the Fraser Valley between the Coast Mountains and the Cascades is one of the most important parts of the Province. Much of the Lower Fraser Valley is of delta formation, only about 50 feet above sea level.

Fraser Valley

As members of the RCN, the Army and the RCAF who have helped in rescue and relief operations in the past well know, the Fraser delta is subject some years to very serious flooding. But the land is so fertile that the residents accept the hazard.

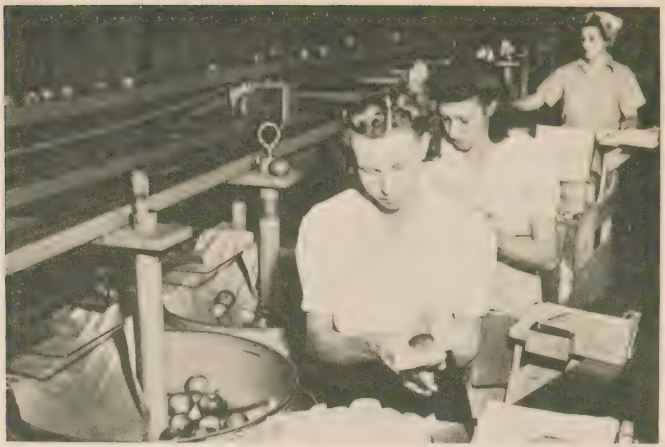
It is easy enough to give an over-all geographical description of British Columbia with the Rockies on the east, the Coast Mountains on the west and the plateaus and grouped ranges of mountains in the interior; but it is impossible to give any clear idea of where the people live and what they do without breaking down the Province's geography into a series of regions.

As already mentioned, most of the people live in Vancouver or within a hundred miles of that city. The others are settled in regional groups based on local conditions of soil fertility and climatic conditions or else in communities that are largely dependent upon a single industry such as mining, lumbering or fishing. Except in the northeast corner of the Province, where part of the Peace River district is shared with Alberta, there is no farming in the typical Alberta or Saskatchewan sense with grain crops uniformly covering large areas of land. Yet British Columbia is a very rich agricultural Province.

In certain parts of the interior there are excellent mixed-farming regions, and the arable land there is still

far from completely settled. The 53,000 square miles of the Peace River district in the northeastern part of the Province will also see much greater agricultural development in the years to come. Prize-winning wheat has been grown in this area, and Dawson Creek is one of the two greatest interior wheat-loading points in the world. A third of the district is prairie; the other two-thirds is timbered with softwoods—spruce, cottonwood, poplar and willow—and more or less resembles the park-lands regions of the Alberta and Saskatchewan prairies. There is deep soil of good quality when the land is cleared of its light timber.

But generally speaking, British Columbia agriculture is largely a highly specialized, economically efficient form of gardening. Agricultural products of very high unit value are grown on small farms of 15 or 20 acres by extraordinarily intensive cultivation that takes full advantage of the circumscribed areas of unusually favourable soil and climate. The prime example is the Okanagan Valley which rates as one of Canada's three most noted fruit-growing districts. A large proportion of the orchards is on a strip of land often less than a quarter of a mile wide which runs for 45 or 50 miles along the shore of Okanagan Lake. Every soil and climatic condition is virtually perfect for fruit growing with one exception: there is not enough natural rainfall to



Packing Apples

grow fruit trees. So perfection is achieved by irrigation. About 90 per cent of the fruit from the Okanagan Valley is grown with water from mountain streams run by flumes into irrigation systems.

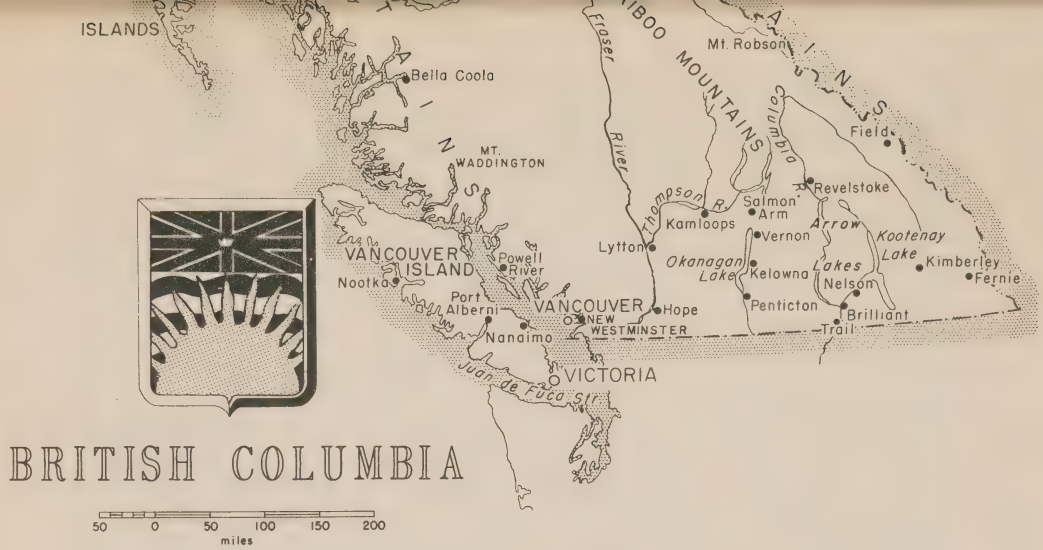
The most important agricultural region of the Province in extent, in gross value of products and in numbers of rural population is the Lower Fraser Valley. The rich farmland of this district has an area of some 900 square miles and runs back from the Pacific Ocean a distance of about 130 miles. In ancient times this part of the Fraser Valley was an arm of the sea, but silt brought down by the river for hundreds of thousands of

years filled it in and built up alluvial flats and benches. Some of the land is just a few feet above the normal level of the river and is protected from the spring floods by many miles of dikes. In years when the river waters rise to exceptional heights they sometimes break through or flow over the dikes and parts of the Lower Fraser Valley are disastrously flooded. This was the case in May and June of 1948 when relief and rehabilitation on a vast scale were necessary.

It is possible that a greater variety of crops are grown in the Lower Fraser Valley than in any other agricultural district of Canada. They run through nearly the full range of specialty and mixed-farming crops found elsewhere, with the addition of some crops rarely if ever grown in other parts of Canada. For example, one of the sights of the Valley is the hop crop. The hop fields cover hundreds of acres. Thousands of stout posts, tall as small telegraph poles, have been set upright in the fields. Wire is strung along the tops of the poles. The hop vines grow up the poles and out along the wire. The crop is picked by girls walking among the vines on stilts.

Lulu Island, at the mouth of the Fraser, has much the same rich, alluvial soil as the flats and benches of the Valley. There the crops are almost exclusively of the outright garden type. All types of berries and vege-


CASSIAR
Liard River
COAST
Stikine River
MOUNTAINS
ROCKY
Fort St. John
Peace R.
Dawson Creek
Parsnip R.
MOUNTAINS
Skeena R.
Smithers
PRINCE RUPERT


ISLANDS
Bella Coola
MT. WADDINGTON
Fraser River
Mt. Robson
Columbia
Field
Revelstoke
Salmon Arm
Thompson R.
Kamloops
Lytton
Vernon
Arrow Lakes
Kootenay Lake
Okanagan Lake
Kelowna
Kimberley
Fernie
Nelson
Penticton
Brilliant
Trail
Hope
VANCOUVER ISLAND
Nootka
Powell River
Port Alberni
VANCOUVER
NEW WESTMINSTER
Nanaimo
VICTORIA
Juan de Fuca Str.
BRITISH COLUMBIA
50 0 50 100 150 200
miles

tables grow luxuriantly, and most of them find an immediate and handy market among the half million people of nearby Vancouver.

The southeastern end and the lower east coast of Vancouver Island constitute another quite thickly settled region. Once again the rural settlement is heavily dependent upon a combination of good soil and exceptional climate.

Winter temperatures at Victoria rarely drop to freezing and the January mean temperature is 40 degrees. Summer temperatures, on the other hand, rarely rise above 75 degrees, the July mean being only 60 degrees. In other words, the temperature range is the smallest and the growing season the longest in the entire Canadian nation. Add to that just the right amount of rainfall and you have perfect conditions for some of the world's most specialized types of crops. The spectacular example is the growing of the bulbs and seeds of flowering plants at Saanich just north of Victoria. Entire fields of daffodils, tulips and other flowers are as striking in their Canadian setting as the bulb farms of the Netherlands.

Just the right amount of rainfall cannot be found everywhere. There is too much of it for most agricultural purposes on the west or open ocean sides of Vancouver Island and the Queen Charlotte Islands and also along most of the mainland coast of the Province. These are the only parts of Canada that have an average annual

rainfall of more than 100 inches. The winds from the Pacific are warmed and soak up moisture as they blow across the Japanese Current. The mountains of the Queen Charlottes and of Vancouver Island and the Coast Range of the mainland force the winds to rise, become chilled and drop part of their moisture as rain on the western slopes. The eastern slopes of the island mountains have a drier climate although the rainfall is still adequate.

If there is a bit too much rain on the western slopes for any ordinary forms of agriculture, there is not too much for the growth of some of the world's largest and most valuable species of trees, among them Douglas fir, western red cedar and Sitka spruce.

Incidentally, after the winds cross the Coast Mountains of the mainland they blow across much of the interior of British Columbia until they reach the Rockies without dropping any further unusual amount of rain. The Rockies, however, force them skyward again and squeeze a second large amount of moisture out of them. Precipitation on the western slopes of the Rockies and throughout most of the three ranges of the Columbia Mountains averages from 50 to 100 inches a year while on the eastern slopes of the Rockies it averages less than 50 inches. Over fairly extensive parts of the interior of British Columbia, the annual precipitation is under 20 inches, and in a few scattered small areas it is actually less than 10 inches.

Ranching

On the Fraser Plateau, in south-central British Columbia, the raising of sheep and beef cattle is the principal agricultural activity. Many of the ranches are of enormous size, one of them covering three-quarters of a million acres. A small part of each ranch is cultivated farmland—cultivated with difficulty through irrigation—to provide winter feed for the sheep and cattle when the snow in the valleys is too deep for range feeding. Generally speaking, the climate is too dry for successful field crops without the aid of irrigation. For ranching purposes the best range land is often on the higher slopes in the summer. Many ranchers pasture their stock on these slopes during the summer months, sell all that are ready for market in the autumn, and bring the remainder down to the more sheltered valleys for the winter.

Other ranching regions are the Arrow Lakes section of the Columbia River valley and the Kootenay district near the Alberta boundary. But the Kootenay district has other agricultural characteristics. Altogether about 130,000 acres are under cultivation in the various valleys of this district and the range of crops is extensive. Orchard fruits, principally apples and cherries, are specialties of some of the valleys, particularly on irrigated land. High-yield wheat farming—with the yield ranging up to 60 bushels per acre—is important in other valleys, notably that of the Kootenay River, between Kootenay Lake and the American Border.

Nechako District

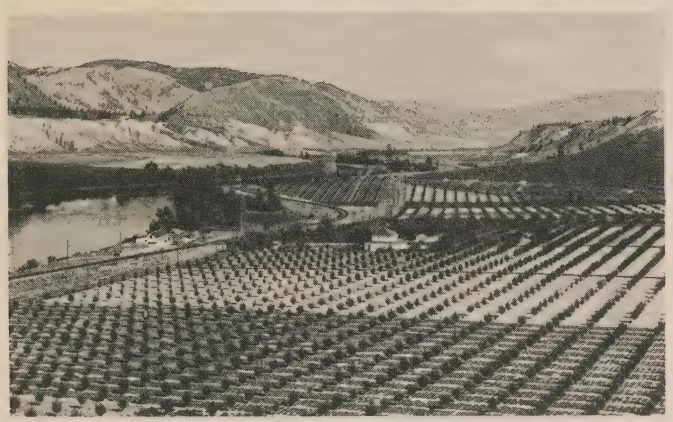
Well to the north of the Fraser Plateau is the Nechako district, with most of its settlements between Smithers and Prince George along the Canadian National Railways main line. Potentially this is one of the largest agricultural areas in British Columbia so far as topography is concerned. A land of deep-soil, majestically rolling low hills and wide river valleys, it has about a million and a half acres of arable land of which at present only about 90,000 acres are under cultivation. But the farming possibilities are limited by both the type of soil and the type of climate. Average annual temperatures are on the low side for the overly abundant rainfall, while the soil itself is a bit too far on the acid side for most crops unless given special treatment.

British Columbia's agricultural districts have been extremely important in the development of the Province because of their pronounced effect upon the distribution of population, but the basic fact remains that 96 per cent of the entire area of the Province is unsuitable for agriculture or too remote from markets and will never be farmed. In spite of this, the people of the Province have an annual cash income from the sale of farm products that is in excess of $100 million annually. The average value per acre of land under cultivation in British Columbia is higher than cultivated land values in any other of the ten provinces. The British Columbia fruit crop has

an average annual commercial value that is slightly greater than the aggregate commercial value of all the fruit produced by the other nine provinces.

All the ten provinces together produce between forty and fifty million dollars worth of fruit a year. The British Columbia production runs between twenty-one and twenty-seven million annually. Ontario, the next biggest producer, grows between fourteen and fifteen million dollars' worth, and Quebec about five million.

British Columbia ranks third among the Canadian provinces not only in population but in the annual net value of all the products of its agriculture, forestry, fisheries, mining, construction, manufacturing and other industries. In two fields of industry, fisheries and the production of timber and sawn lumber, it is far in the lead among all the provinces. British Columbia fisheries products have a greater value annually than the value of the fisheries products of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island combined. Indeed, in 1951, when the salmon pack was unusually heavy, the marketed value of all products of the fisheries of British Columbia almost equalled that of these three provinces and Newfoundland as well. It was considerably more than double that of Nova Scotia and very considerably more than three times that of Newfoundland.



Okanagan Valley

Pacific salmon, fresh, frozen or canned, accounts, of course, for the bulk of the West Coast Province's great fisheries wealth. In 1951 when the marketed value of all British Columbia fisheries products was $85,396,000, about $60 million of this sum was derived from salmon—$47 million of it from canned salmon. The rest of it came from $10 million worth of herring, over $5 million worth of halibut and from several other fish and shellfish.

The annual value of the lumber produced by British Columbia is more than twice the value of the lumber produced by all the other provinces combined. The West Coast Province has been producing more than $200 million worth a year out of the entire Canadian production



Salmon Fishing

of $400 million worth annually. But here it should be remembered that although British Columbia is overwhelmingly in the lead in this respect, the Province trails both Quebec and Ontario in over-all value of production of forest products. This is because Quebec and Ontario, while producing a considerable quantity of lumber also produce a really tremendous amount of pulpwood. British Columbia also produces some pulpwood but nothing like the huge quantities cut in the Eastern Provinces.

The chief British Columbia timber trees are the Douglas fir, Sitka and one or two other varieties of spruce, western red cedar, hemlock, and ponderosa and lodge-

pole pine. The largest trees and the heaviest stands of them in all Canada are on Vancouver Island and the Queen Charlotte Islands and on the western slopes of the Coast and Cascade Mountains.

Next to timber and forest products, mining is the second most important primary industry in British Columbia. The value of the production of all British Columbia mines now averages a hundred million or more dollars a year.

Deposits of the ores of various metals are found in many parts of the Province. Some of the most important deposits of the lead-zinc-silver and of the copper-gold types are found at the margins of the Coast and Columbia Mountains. Future prospecting, it is expected, will reveal additional valuable deposits in the Cassiar, Omineca, Skeena and other regions. Important non-metallic minerals are coal and gypsum. The coal is mined largely in the Crowsnest region of the Rockies.

Economically and strategically, the two most important British Columbia minerals are lead and zinc. Nearly all of Canada's lead production comes from the Province and about half the nation's zinc production. Many of the lead and zinc mines are in the southeastern part of the Province between the Selkirk and Rocky Mountain Trenches. One of these mines, the Sullivan,



Logging

near the town of Kimberley, produces about 90 per cent of all the lead mined in Canada and 11 per cent of the total world production of this metal. About eight per cent of the world's annual production of zinc also comes from the Sullivan mine.

Other valuable lead and zinc mines are in the Slocan and the Field districts.

British Columbia's mining was initiated with a gold rush, and for many years gold was the chief mineral. But those days are long since past. The precious metal is still being mined in eight or nine regions of the Province, but generally speaking the gold mines are overshadowed by the base metals mines. It is not that the former are negligible but that the latter have a production so huge that they are of very considerable national and international significance.

The principal copper mining sites are Britannia, on Howe Sound, where about 20,000 tons of copper are produced annually, and Copper Mountain near Princeton, whose production is about equal to Britannia's.

Other fairly important British Columbia minerals are silver, mercury and iron. Silver is produced by several mines, usually as a by-product of other mining operations. Mercury has been mined near Pinchi Lake in the the Nechako district and there are said to be considerable reserves in the region but market conditions have been unfavourable to continuous production. There are large reserves of magnetite iron on Texada Island, about 50 miles northwest of Vancouver Island, but no iron mining has ever been done. At some future date, when British Columbia could support a steel industry, this ore, with coke from Comox coal, might become the basis of it.

Curiously enough, the smelting and refining of metals in British Columbia is almost better known and more spectacular than their original extraction from the mines. At Trail, the largest smelter in Canada and one of the largest in the world, is operated by the Consolidated Mining and Smelting Company. It recovers from the lead-zinc-silver ores of the southern region of the Province not only these metals but cadmium, bismuth, antimony and tungsten and produces many other by-products.



School at Kemano

Meanwhile, the new smelter at Kitimat of the Aluminum Company of Canada, recently brought into production, has had even more extraordinary world-wide publicity. The ore is not of Canadian origin. It comes from Jamaica through the Panama Canal in the form of alumina and up the Pacific coast in ocean-going ore-carriers. It is brought to Kitimat because there it has been possible to build one of the world's extraordinary hydro-

electric power installations. The smelting of aluminum requires so much electricity that it is usually easier to bring the ore to the power than the power to the ore.

At Kitimat more power will be developed eventually than would be needed to light nearly all the homes in all the cities of Canada and virtually all of it will be used in aluminum smelting. Much of the attention Kitimat has received has been the result of the imaginative engineering feats by which the power is being produced — the diversion of a river, the creation of a vast new lake by means of the second largest earth-fill dam in existence, a power tunnel cut ten miles through a mountain, the huge power-house itself built inside the mountain, the laying out and building of a new city for 50,000 expected population on a site which a few years ago had no inhabitants.

The capital of British Columbia, Victoria, is located on the southeastern point of Vancouver Island, about 80 miles from Vancouver. It had a population of 51,300 within its municipal boundaries in the 1951 Census. The population of the metropolitan district is about 105,000.

The site of the city was selected as a Hudson's Bay Company trading post in 1843 largely because it had a deep ice-free harbour and a good fresh-water supply. The surrounding land was easy to clear and was excellent for agricultural purposes. The climate was one of the best to be found anywhere in the north temperate zone.

Victoria

The population remained small and mainly dependent upon the fur trade until 1858 when gold was discovered in the Cariboo. Although it was many miles from the gold strike, the miners made Victoria their principal headquarters mainly because it was then the only important port on the Canadian west coast surrounded by a fair-sized settlement. Both population and business interests grew as the result of mining developments and Victoria remained the principal commercial centre of British Columbia until about 1885; but from there on Vancouver became of greater importance.

In recent times, Victoria is more noted as a residential city and tourist centre, and of course as the provincial political centre, than it is as a centre of commerce. Indeed, it may be said to be the only city in Canada that has its outstanding claim to fame and its steadily increasing population based mainly on its characteristics as a residential community. Thousands of people in all parts of Canada dream about living in Victoria when the time comes for them to retire.

The proportion of the city's population who have already achieved that dream, who have spent the most active parts of their lives elsewhere but have gone to Victoria to live in retirement, produces a leisurely and gracious atmosphere that is in sharp contrast with the hurry and bustle of most North American cities. This

special charm of Victoria, combined with its fine climate and extraordinary nearby scenic attractions such as the Malahat Drive, the fields of daffodils and tulips on the Saanich Peninsula, the world-famous Butchart Gardens, an incredible profusion of flowers throughout the city and along every suburban roadside, attracts both Canadian and American tourists in large numbers.

Victoria is not, of course, without commercial life. It is both the retail and wholesale centre for the southern end of Vancouver Island. It is also a shipping centre for fruit, fish, timber and woodpulp. Manufacturing is not very important by comparison with most Canadian cities, nevertheless the gross value of Victoria's manufactured production is between thirty and thirty-five million dollars annually.

If one wishes a change from the leisurely life of the city in general, he can find it at Esquimalt, a suburb largely concerned with the activities of the Royal Canadian Navy. It is the location of Canada's major west coast Naval Base. A few miles farther out in the country in a magnificent scenic setting is Royal Roads, one of the three Canadian Services Colleges.

Vancouver is Canada's third largest city, with a population of 530,728 in its metropolitan area, according to the 1951 Census. It is about half the size of Toronto, and about a third larger than Winnipeg.

Biggest City

The city's location on Burrard Inlet gives it one of the world's finest ice-free harbours. Much of the main part of the city is built on rolling land rising from the harbour. To the south it is backed by the flats of the delta of the Fraser River. Peaks of the Coast Mountains rise a short distance to the north, while far away to the south can be seen on any clear day such peaks as Mount Baker in the State of Washington. Few cities have such a spectacularly scenic location, and probably none has such climatic variation within its boundaries.

The great difference between the climate of Victoria and the climate of Vancouver is in the amount of rainfall. At Victoria, the mean precipitation is 27 inches a year. At Vancouver it is 60 inches. But the 60 inches at Vancouver is more or less an over-all figure. It should not be taken as the rainfall of all parts of the city and its suburbs. At the Vancouver Airport on Sea Island, which is only a few feet above sea level, the rainfall is about 40 inches a year. At Seymour Falls, one of the suburbs with an elevation of 700 feet, the annual rainfall reaches 140 inches.

A wide variation in fog conditions is another characteristic of Vancouver. In the autumn and early winter dense fog forms frequently in low-lying parts of the city, whereas the higher sections are practically fog-free.

Modern Housing



Transportation

Vancouver is the almost perfect example of how transportation facilities influence the location and growth of a great city. When Vancouver was merely a sawmill village, both Victoria on Vancouver Island and New Westminster on the mainland were thriving towns. Victoria has an excellent harbour and possibly would have become Canada's greatest west coast port if it could have had direct road and rail connections with the mainland, but Vancouver quickly outstripped it because it had an excellent harbour and was also the terminus of the Canadian Pacific Railway.

The harbour and the rail terminus together were apparently the decisive factors. It will be remembered that it was originally planned to have the terminus of the C.P.R. at Port Moody at the head of Burrard Inlet, but within a year or so the rail line was extended to the site of Vancouver. At that moment, Port Moody lost its chance to become the west coast metropolis, and its present population is about 2,000. New Westminster, located about 12 miles southeast of Vancouver was once the capital of the mainland of British Columbia when the mainland and Vancouver Island were two separate British colonies. It has a good harbour and is an important seaport, but its growth, though steady, was comparatively slow after Vancouver became the rail terminus. Today, though it is a separate municipality, it is part of the Vancouver metropolitan area.



Vancouver

Another transportation factor which contributed to Vancouver's rapid growth was the building of the Panama Canal. This gave British Columbia a sea route to Europe which was cheaper for all heavy freight purposes than the rail route across Canada plus sea shipment across the Atlantic. In the nineteen-twenties, development of this route for grain shipments from the Prairies began and now Vancouver shares with Montreal much of the Canadian grain export business. There are nine large grain elevators on Burrard Inlet. The two other major exports from Vancouver are lumber and fish.

Vancouver has more than 1,000 manufacturing plants which annually produce goods with a gross value of over

$300 million. The industries include fish processing, sawmilling, petroleum refining, sugar refining, printing and publishing, metal working and machinery, and numerous smaller industries of local or regional importance. During the Second World War, Vancouver was an extremely important shipbuilding centre and an attempt has been made to maintain at least a nucleus of this industry under peacetime conditions.

As a retail and wholesale centre Vancouver does a large proportion of all of British Columbia's business. Indeed, about 47 per cent of all the trade of the Canadian west coast is centred there.

For colourful variety in its urban characteristics, Vancouver is second only to Montreal among Canadian cities. By contrast with Victoria, it is a city of driving energy, commercial efficiency and ultra-modern ideas. Cheek by jowl with the downtown business district with its impression of white stone, aluminum and chromium, is the venerable Chinese district with its elderly buildings and mazes of alleys and stairways, the largest Chinatown in North America except that of San Francisco. In the harbour at any one time may be ships from a score of countries, several of them trans-Pacific. The internationally famous Stanley Park with its giant trees and totem poles is one of the numerous parks with which the people of Vancouver and its suburbs have enhanced and

preserved the natural loveliness of their setting. The Lion's Gate Bridge, with its curving approach from Stanley Park is one of the world's great suspension spans. It crosses the harbour mouth at the First Narrows and its mountain backdrop beyond North Vancouver makes it possibly one of the most beautifully located of all suspension bridges.

And so it goes throughout Vancouver. The site of the University of British Columbia on University Heights is declared to be, by all U.B.C. alumni, the most perfect scenic setting in North America for a great university. The beaches along Burrard Inlet, Jericho Beach, Kitsilano Beach, English Bay, Second Beach and Third Beach, have their pictures taken and placed in tourist folders. The various residential districts, Shaughnessy Heights, West Point Grey, the newer district in West Vancouver near the Capilano Canyon and several others are attractions in themselves.

In the Vancouver metropolitan area there are more than a dozen communities, most of them with separate municipal governments, all merging into the main city. They even include one small Indian Reservation. The largest district municipality, Burnaby, located just east of the Vancouver city limits, has not yet been incorporated as a city although its population is approximately 60,000. New Westminster, North Vancouver (15,687 population),



Port Coquitlam and Port Moody all have city-type municipal governments, even though the last two have little over 3,000 and 2,000 population respectively. Meanwhile North Vancouver's 15,687 population is only about half the number in the whole North Vancouver community; an additional 14,469 live in the North Vancouver District Municipality which has an administration like that of Burnaby. Other suburbs with district rather than city types of administration are West Vancouver (13,990), Richmond (19,186), Coquitlam District (15,697) and Surrey (9,735).

Eastward from Vancouver, up the Fraser River Valley, are several towns. The largest of them is Chilliwack with a population of 6,000. It is 60 miles away on the Canadian National Railways and is the centre of a rich agricultural district.

Northward about 85 miles on the east shore of the Strait of Georgia is Powell River, an important paper mill town of about 8,000 people. An indication of the difficulties of road and railway building in British Columbia is found in the fact that Powell River's only means of transport to Vancouver is by sea or air.

Lion's Gate Bridge



Site of First B.C. Coal Mine, Nanaimo

Over on Vancouver Island, one of the largest urban centres, other than the municipalities making up the metropolitan area of Victoria, is Nanaimo. It is a small port on the east side of the Island about 40 miles directly west of Vancouver across the Strait of Georgia and about 60 miles northwest of Victoria. Founded as a coal mining town, it is now the centre of an important agricultural district. It has a sawmill, a paper mill and some shipbuilding yards. The population in the 1951 Census was about 7,200.

Other smaller towns on the east coast of Vancouver Island are Duncan, Ladysmith, Sidney, Courtenay, Comox, Cumberland and Campbell River. The latter, with a population of 1,900, has the distinction of being far better known throughout the rest of the English-speaking world than it is to most Canadians. It is the home of Roderick Haig-Brown whose books are regarded by many critics as among the finest of their type. Haig-Brown's books have sold about a quarter of a million copies outside of Canada and only a few thousand in this country.

Port Alberni and Alberni, a twin community with a combined population of about 11,000, at the head of the Alberni Canal is a centre of extensive lumbering activities. Sawmills and wood-working plants provide employment for a large proportion of the population. The Alberni Canal, is not a man-made waterway but a long narrow arm of the sea running in from the Pacific and Barkley Sound, two-thirds of the way across Vancouver Island. The ships that load lumber at the Port Alberni docks sail out of the Canal and the Sound to the open Pacific although it is only a few miles overland from the port to the Strait of Georgia side of Vancouver Island.

The total population of the Queen Charlotte Islands is less than 2,500, of whom about 775 are Haida Indians. Almost exactly two-thirds of the white population are males, an indication of the rugged pioneering nature of

the economic life of the district. There are four small settlements, Massett, Port Clements, Queen Charlotte City and the ancient Indian village of Skidegate.

Across on the mainland from the Queen Charlottes, at the mouth of the Skeena River is Prince Rupert, a fine harbour and the transcontinental main line terminus of the old Grand Trunk Pacific, now in the Canadian National Railways. It is closer to the Orient than any other major Canadian port and at one time it was predicted that it would rival Vancouver in population. But only about 9,000 live in Prince Rupert now and most of the C.N.R. traffic to the coast takes the route across south-central British Columbia to Vancouver. At present, the chief industry is fish packing. There is a large new celanese plant at nearby Port Edward, and there are indications that Prince Rupert is likely to have much of its future growth based on industrial development rather than transportation.

East of Prince Rupert and up the Skeena River and then into the Nechako district are the small towns of Terrace, Smithers, Burns Lake and Vanderhoof before we come to the district's main centre, Prince George, at the confluence of the Fraser and the Nechako Rivers. Its population is a trifle less than 5,000.

About 200 miles northeast of Prince George, along the Alberta boundary, is the Peace River district of Brit-

ish Columbia with its towns of Dawson Creek, Fort St. John and Pouce Coupé. Dawson Creek is the southern terminus of the Alaska Highway and the northern terminus of the Northern Alberta Railway. During the Second World War its only highway connections with the south were through Alberta to Edmonton, but recently a highway to Prince George has been constructed up the Pine River valley, across Pine Pass and up the Crooked River valley.

Far to the south in the Okanagan Valley the main communities are Penticton (population 10,500), Kelowna (9,000), and Vernon (8,000). Among the smaller towns are Summerland, Armstrong, Enderby, Salmon Arm and Oliver. The economic life of all these places revolves mainly around the fruit-growing industry. The population of the Okanagan Valley as a whole is about 70,000, about evenly divided between urban and rural.

To the west and a little to the north of the Okanagan is Kamloops, a town of 8,100, at the confluence of the North and South Thompson Rivers. It is a divisional point of both the C.N.R. and the C.P.R.

On the Columbia River, a short distance north of the American Border, is Trail, one of Canada's most famous metallurgical centres, and its nearby residential suburb of Rossland. Together they have a population of more than 15,000. The huge smelting, fertilizer and

chemical plants of Consolidated Mining and Smelting Company are the main features of Trail itself. Metals and chemicals from these plants are shipped to all parts of Canada and to numerous other countries. Trail is also the location of one of the world's most advanced plants for the production of heavy water, the moderator that is used in the Canadian atomic reactors at Chalk River, Ontario.

Nelson, with a population of 7,000, is a thriving trading centre of the Kootenay district. Other widely known towns in the southeastern part of British Columbia are Revelstoke, Kaslo, Cranbrook and Fernie. One of the smaller ones, Brilliant, has an international reputation. In it are located the community headquarters, canning plant, packing plant, halls and administrative offices of the Doukhobors.

About 75 miles southeast of Prince Rupert is another small dot on the map with an even wider reputation—Kitimat, where half a million metric tons of aluminum will be produced and where the population is expected to reach 15,000 within the next three or four years and where it may rise to 50,000 within a decade.

Photos courtesy of
National Film Board
of Canada

HOW TO USE THIS PAMPHLET

BRITISH COLUMBIA

This is Article No. 15 in the CITIZENSHIP SERIES of CURRENT AFFAIRS pamphlets.

Read this pamphlet carefully, make notes and follow a definite plan in presenting your material in the Discussion Hour.

The headings in the pamphlet are arranged so that you can present your material in an orderly manner.

Place-names can be found on the accompanying map which should be referred to frequently so as to familiarize the group with the geography of the Province.

The following questions are suggested for discussion at the end of the presentation of your material:

1. How does municipal government in British Columbia differ from that in other provinces?
2. What are the distinguishing features of British Columbia's geography and climate?
3. How does agriculture in British Columbia differ from that of other provinces?
4. In what fields of industry is British Columbia outstanding and to what extent?
5. What have been some of the recent advances in British Columbia's ferrous and non-ferrous mining and smelting industries?

Do not forget to make a summary of the discussion in the last five minutes of the hour.

EDMOND CLOUTIER, C.M.G., O.A., D.S.P.
QUEEN'S PRINTER AND CONTROLLER OF STATIONERY, OTTAWA, 1954


CANADA
BRITISH
COLUMBIA

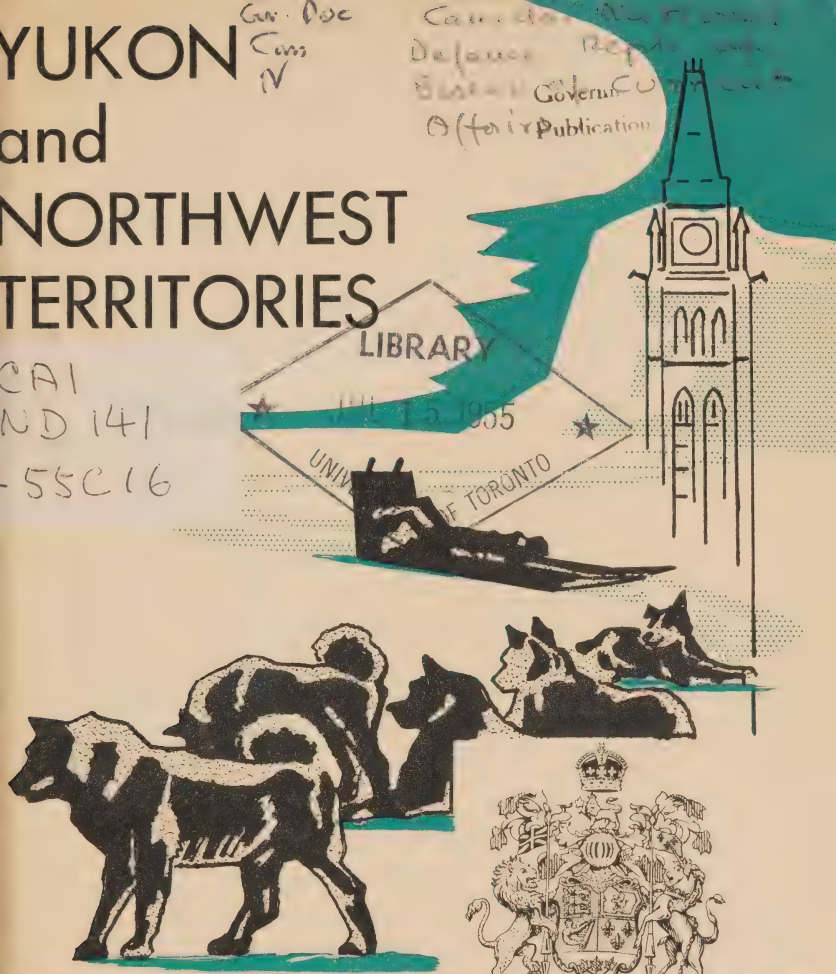
YUKON and NORTHWEST TERRITORIES

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Government
Publications

The sixteenth of a series of pamphlets on Canadian Citizenship, prepared especially for the Armed Forces by the Bureau of Current Affairs.

The Yukon and Northwest Territories

No. 16

BUREAU OF CURRENT AFFAIRS
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, CANADA

Introduction

In a foreword to the first of the regular series of *Current Affairs* pamphlets issued in October, 1951, the Minister of National Defence stated that service personnel "should know as much as possible about Canada . . .".

Accordingly, the Bureau of Current Affairs has initiated a series of citizenship pamphlets. In this series five have been published to date dealing with the following topics:—

The Canadian Constitution
How Parliament Works
Local Government
The Serviceman and His Vote
The Public Service of Canada.

We are now issuing citizenship pamphlets which tell about the ten provinces of Canada and Yukon and the Northwest Territories. This material will supplement the first five pamphlets.

We sincerely hope that service personnel will obtain a broader understanding and deeper appreciation of their country from a study and discussion of this material.

HARRY R. LOW
Director, Bureau of Current Affairs

The Yukon and Northwest Territories

Over vast areas of the north, the land can have the almost infinite monotony of seemingly limitless tundra or muskeg. Over other parts, it can have such tremendous, sweeping horizontal patterns as the long course of the Mackenzie River wandering in great serpentine curves over the flat floor of a valley that in many places is 50 to 100 miles wide. Elsewhere it is mountainous.

In an area so huge, so diverse, so sparsely settled, as the Yukon and Northwest Territories, transportation and communications hold the keys to many problems—problems of administration, of economic development, of personal life.

The Yukon is small by comparison with the Northwest Territories, yet it is larger than the combined areas of Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick and Newfoundland including Labrador.

Quebec, the largest Canadian province, is considerably less than half the area of the Northwest Territories. Ontario is less than a third as large.

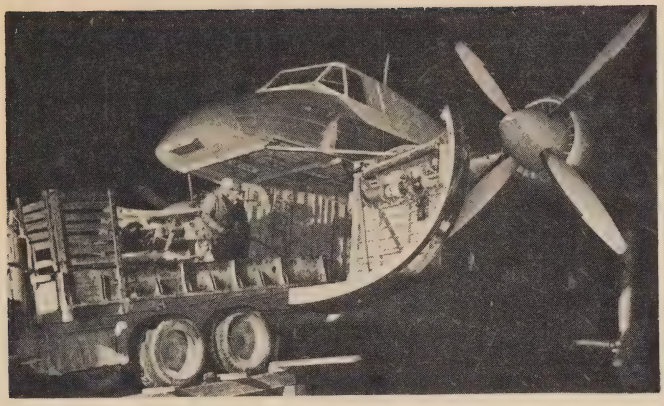
Put the areas of the Yukon and the Northwest Territories together and the result is nearly equal to the com-

bined areas of British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba and Ontario.

The gold-seekers who came to the Yukon by thousands after the famous strike on Bonanza Creek in the Klondike in 1896 mostly arrived by boat at Skagway, Alaska, then struggled across the Chilkoot and White Passes on foot. At Lake Lindeman, headwaters of the Lewes River, they built crude boats, some of them little more than rafts, and floated 500 miles down the Lewes and Yukon Rivers to Dawson where the Klondike River joins the Yukon.

As Dawson blossomed into a fit setting for "the lady known as Lou" and for the shooting of Dan McGrew, it seemed desirable to establish some measure of law and order. The North West Mounted Police, who were in the Yukon before 1896, set up posts at Dawson and Whitehorse and brought in additional constables by the Skagway route; but they soon decided to blaze a trail from Edmonton entirely on Canadian soil. Their exploration patrol, commanded by Inspector D. J. Moody, set out from Edmonton in September, 1897, and required more than a year to reach Fort Selkirk midway between Whitehorse and Dawson.

Inspector Moody's patrol travelled by pack horse, by dog team, by boat and afoot. Today, travelling by commercial airline, you can leave Edmonton at 11.15 a.m.,



Loading Air Freight

every day except Sunday, and be in Whitehorse four and a half hours later. If it is midsummer and you want to see the midnight sun you may decide to go on to Dawson, a hundred miles beyond Fort Selkirk, that same afternoon. You will be in time for a leisurely dinner and a stroll through the quiet streets in the long Arctic twilight. Then you can climb a hill and see the sun dipping to the horizon and a few minutes later beginning to rise again.

In less than half a day of flying time you have covered the route that took more than a year to travel half a century ago.

But even by air, the distances in the Canadian north are still almost unbelievably great.

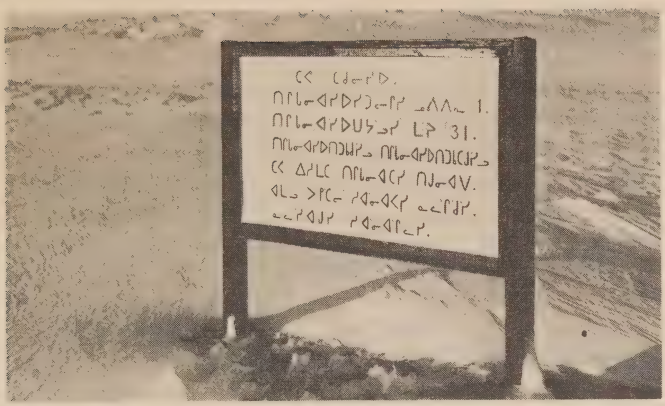
Immensity

If you have flown all the way across Canada from Torbay Airport at St. John's, Newfoundland, to Patricia Bay Airport at Victoria, British Columbia—or even part way across, say from Toronto to Regina—you think you have a pretty fair impression of the vast size of your country.

But after any long flight over the Northwest Territories, you realize that no air journeys across the comparatively thickly-populated southern fifth of the nation ever give the deep psychological experience of distance and immensity that an air passenger receives in the north.

The total distance from St. John's to Victoria will be greater than that of your flight over the Northwest Territories. But a transcontinental flight is done in a series of hops from city to city—St. John's, Sydney, Moncton, Montreal and so on—and most of the time, looking down, there are man-made patterns: the roads and the farms and the villages of the eastern provinces, the checkerboard of square farms on the prairies, the little towns and ribbons of railway track through the mountains of British Columbia.

Over most of the Northwest Territories, on the other hand, you fly hour after hour with never a sign beneath you that man has placed foot on the earth. If you do see a sign, it will be only a small trading post, with buildings for no more than a dozen or two people, emphasizing the



RCMP Signboard

loneliness of the land. You may travel another fifty, perhaps five hundred miles, before you come to the next sign of habitation.

Hour after hour your plane devours distance, yet there is always more distance still to be devoured. Under the hypnotic drone of the engines, hour after hour, your idea of distance changes into a new understanding of immensity which you will carry with you the rest of your life.

Flying from Edmonton to Aklavik by commercial airline, your plane is in the air nearly eight hours the first day and four and a half hours the second day. At Norman Wells, after that first day of flying from Edmonton, you have not yet reached the Arctic Circle.

Communications

Over the Yukon, the impressions are much the same, although with some differences. The landscape is more rugged with, consequently, a greater variety of scenery. There is also the beginning of a man-made pattern, at least beneath the most frequently travelled air routes.

In one sense, the airplane, radio and wire services solve the transportation and communication problems of the Yukon and the Northwest Territories, and solve them very slickly. But in another sense—the sense in which transportation and communication problems have been solved in the southern parts of Canada—they provide scarcely any solution.

Air mail will, of course, reach Dawson from Edmonton as swiftly as you did—in less than a day. In the gold rush era, a letter from the "outside" might reach a miner in the Yukon in six weeks or six months or never.

Telegraph service, either commercial land line or government wireless, both connecting with commercial communication systems in all parts of Canada and indeed throughout the world, provides almost instantaneous communication with the "outside". Towns along the Alaska Highway have the same long-distance telephone connections that are available to telephone subscribers in the southern parts of Canada. Whitehorse has dial telephones.

Throughout both the Yukon and the Northwest Territories, these communication services are supplemented by various others, some operated by the Department of Transport, some operated commercially or co-operatively within a district, some operated by private commercial mining enterprises, and others — usually "ham" radio stations — operated by private individuals.

But the cost of transportation by airplane in the north, for either passengers or supplies, is necessarily high. So too is the cost of communication other than by mail.

For example, a full-rate, ten-word telegram from Aklavik to Toronto costs the sender $4.45. Of this amount, $2.75 is the cost of transmitting the message from Aklavik to Edmonton, a distance of about 1,200 miles, and $1.70 the cost of transmitting from Edmonton to Toronto, a distance of about 1,800 miles.

In short, the north is still almost unbelievably immense unless you can afford a private airplane and a private wireless station. For the average individual, telegraph and telephone costs are prohibitive for mere pleasant chatter. However, for emergency purposes, for official purposes such as defence, administration or weather reporting, and also for the purposes of the larger business organizations such as mining companies successful enough to take the higher costs in their stride, the

north is surprisingly well supplied with modern communication facilities.

Look at this problem of area and distance in another way. It is about 2,865 miles from the most southerly land in Canada to the most northerly, and more than three-quarters of that distance lies across the Northwest Territories. The most southerly bit of Canadian soil is Middle Island in Lake Erie, about 50 miles south of Windsor, Ontario. It is about 685 miles from Middle Island in Lake Erie to the most southerly part of the Territories, Stag Island in James Bay; and it is 2,180 miles from Stag Island to Cape Aldrich on the north shore of Ellesmere Island. That 2,180 miles exceeds the 2,065 miles of a transatlantic flight from Gander to Shannon.

Incidentally, few, except the administrative officers who have to be concerned with them, ever stop to think of the islands of James Bay and Hudson Bay as being included in the Northwest Territories. The Territories, for the average person looking at a map, begin at the 60th parallel, where it forms the northern border of British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba. But even measuring the depth of the Northwest Territories from the 60th parallel, they cover more than half of Canada's depth from south to north.

The width of the Yukon and Northwest Territories from east to west is almost as great as their total depth.

The most easterly cape of Baffin Island is 1,765 miles from the most westerly point in the southwest corner of the Yukon.

Yet these figures of distance, impressive as they are, seem inadequate beside the realities of a long air journey in the north. Statistical distance is merely a straight line. When you fly you are in a three-dimensional immensity. The turning propellers steadily take care of the straight line, but in the north you find it impossible to ignore the height of the heavens above you or the breadth of the land below.

The night sky may be filled to the zenith with extraordinarily brilliant Northern Lights. The day sky, at certain seasons and in certains districts, may be filled to the horizon with migrating wild geese—not a few hundreds or a few thousands, but many hundreds of thousands.

The predominant characteristics of the Yukon and the Northwest Territories, the ruggedness of the former, the immensity of the latter, have made it necessary to solve the transportation problem of each in somewhat different ways. The Yukon was "opened up" mainly by river and overland transportation, the Northwest Territories by air. In the Yukon there is a railway. River boats have operated there for more than half a century. There are roads.

In the Northwest Territories there were steamboats, now replaced by diesel-powered boats, on the great inland



Canada's Most Northerly School

water route from Fort Smith, by way of the Slave and Mackenzie Rivers, to Aklavik and Tuktoyaktuk on the Arctic Ocean. There are connecting shipping routes on Great Slave Lake and Great Bear Lake. But in the entire 1,304,903 square miles of the Northwest Territories there are only a few miles of main road that lead to anywhere and there are no railways at all. Excepting the local roads at the settlements, everything else in the way of transportation is by air or by salt-water coastal shipping, and most of it is by air. Dog teams are still used by the Eskimos and the Indians and to a limited extent by others, but they are slow for the pace of our times.

The one railway in the Yukon runs 110 miles from the port of Skagway, Alaska, to Whitehorse. During the summer it maintains a service to Whitehorse daily except Sundays. In the winter, trains run twice a week.

Boats on the Yukon River are not used by passengers as much as they were in the days before air transportation and the Alaska Highway. In summer, however, there are tourists who enjoy the two-day cruise downstream from Whitehorse to Dawson and the four-day return trip bucking the current. There is a motorboat shuttle service which transfers freight from the large boats on the Yukon to Old Crow, far up the Porcupine River. Boats formerly transported supplies and mining equipment to the Mayo district on the Stewart River, but trucks on the Mayo-Whitehorse highways have been doing the job since 1950.

The water route to the "outside" is from Skagway, Alaska, by way of Prince Rupert, to Vancouver or to one of the Pacific ports in the United States.

The Yukon, in comparison with the much bigger Northwest Territories, has what amounts almost to a network of roads. The main one, of course, is the famous Alaska Highway, 1,523 miles long, which runs through the Yukon for 587 miles, from Watson Lake to Snag. It was built during the Second World War from Dawson Creek, B.C., to Fairbanks, Alaska, as a Canada-United States defence project. The maintenance of the Canadian



Trucks on Alaska Highway

section may be transferred shortly from the Army to the federal Department of Public Works.

Along it are tiny settlements with such picturesque names as Lower Rancheria, Champagne and Cracker Creek. The Canadian customs and excise port of entry is at Snag, 15 miles inside the Yukon from the Alaska border, and the 15 miles do not matter in the least because there is no place for anybody to go except straight along the road. Snag, by the way, is the coldest spot in Canada.

One day, in 1947, the thermometer officially registered 81 degrees below zero.

Lesser roads, branching off the Alaska Highway, are open twelve months in the year to Carcross, Mayo, Keno Hill and Dawson, and on from Dawson into Alaska.

The only all-weather trunk road in the Northwest Territories is the northern 81 miles of the Mackenzie Highway. This highway runs from Hay River, on the south shore of Great Slave Lake, across the Alberta border, to railhead at Grimshaw in the Peace River district. The Mackenzie Highway has the same rail and road connections as the Alaska Highway through Alberta and British Columbia. It was built as a joint project of the Federal and Alberta governments, the latter paying the entire cost of the NWT section and two-thirds of the 304 miles in Alberta.

There is a road, not yet much better than a trail, running about 100 miles easterly along the south shore of Great Slave Lake to the base metals mining development at Pine Point. A winter road crosses Great Slave Lake on the ice between Yellowknife and Hay River and skirts the north shore. Roads lead out from Yellowknife to various mines and the airport. One extremely important short road starts about 15 miles inside Alberta and carries truck freight around the rapids on the Slave River to Fort Smith and Bell Rock, NWT, where it is



Siwash Cemetery—Yukon

trans-shipped to river boats for the long haul to the Arctic Ocean. Altogether there are about 150 miles of local roads at Fort Smith. There are other roads of various lengths at Hay River, Fort Simpson, Fort Providence and Norman Wells.

However, road building is not one of the urgent activities in the Northwest Territories. Distances are too great and the vast area is too sparsely settled for highway networks. The north country has jumped almost straight from the age of the steamboat into the air age.

The river boat is still the great freight carrier of the Northwest Territories. Records have been established in the airlifting of extremely heavy cargoes, it is true, but, whenever possible, heavy or bulky equipment is still transported by water, and the same may be said of bulk supplies. Freight for isolated outposts is landed at the nearest wharves for distribution by airplane, truck or dog team.

It may be a long time before anthropologists decide how many thousands of years the Indians have been using the Mackenzie River system as a water highway, but the paleface has been travelling on it since 1789. It was in



Paddle-Wheel Steamer

that year that Alexander Mackenzie made his historic journey of exploration from Fort Chipewyan, on Lake Athabasca, down the Slave River, across Great Slave Lake, then down to tide-water on the great river which bears his name.

The canoes and, later, the York boats of the fur traders, provided transportation on the Mackenzie system during the first three-quarters of the 19th century; but by 1886 steamboats were running from Fort Smith on the Slave River to Fort McPherson near the Mackenzie River Delta.

The modern Mackenzie River water transportation system runs all the way from Waterways, Alberta, to Aklavik and Tuktoyaktuk, the former a port of the Mackenzie Delta, the latter a harbour on the shore of the Arctic itself. From Fort Fitzgerald, Alta., to Fort Smith and nearby Bell Rock, is the already mentioned truck portage around the rapids. But from there to the Arctic flows an uninterrupted navigable waterway a thousand miles long.

From the air, there is no other geographical feature in Canada quite like the Mackenzie River. It makes all other Canadian rivers, even, in some ways, the mighty St. Lawrence, look like pygmies. Everything about it, except the timber along its banks, is on a scale that would delight the heart of Paul Bunyan. Babe, the Blue Ox, could not drink it dry. Even the mosquitoes that breed



Yukon Mountains

in the muskeg through which it flows are of gigantic size. At Norman Wells, about 450 miles upstream from the Arctic, it is between two and three miles wide and some 60 feet deep. In places it looks more like a long lake than a river. But its placid appearance is deceptive, as anyone finds when he tries to row or paddle against the current.

The vertical geographical pattern is as impressive, especially in the Yukon, as the horizontal. Mount Logan and fifteen other peaks in the St. Elias Range are higher

than any other Canadian mountains. Only about 150 miles from Dawson, at the headwaters of the Wind and the Bonnet Plume Rivers, are mountains, not spectacularly high, but so numerous, so rugged and so devoid of passes, that government surveyors who went in a year or two ago by helicopter, were probably the first human beings to see them from the ground.

On Baffin and Ellesmere Islands, in the Northwest Territories, are mountains of 8,000, 9,000 and even 10,000 feet which have yet to be accurately measured. Detailed information about them will probably be lacking for a long time, unless some development occurs to justify the expense of their exploration.

In short, there is still an area of about half a million square miles in Canada that has scarcely been seen by anyone except from airplanes, and it will be many generations before everything is known about some of these regions. Whatever geographical features may eventually be found, it is certain that they will not be simply or easily tamed. Whether it is the seemingly endless monotony of the tundra, or the convolutions of the great rivers, or the titanic upheavals of rock in the mountainous districts, or the perpetual ice caps over parts of Baffin and Ellesmere Islands, it is difficult to believe that people will impose strong man-made patterns on the natural patterns, as they have done on the land in the southern parts of Canada.

Tree Line and Watershed

Over an area as immense as the Yukon and Northwest Territories, it would be natural to expect great variations in climate. But it is the comparative uniformity, not the variations, which is surprising. The entire Canadian northland falls into only two climatic classifications: the *Northwestern Lands Region* and the *Northern Lands Region.*

The *Northwestern* region includes all of the Yukon and parts of the District of Mackenzie southwest of a line drawn from the Mackenzie River delta to the shore of Hudson Bay where Manitoba and Keewatin meet at the 60th parallel. The *Northern* region takes in the rest of Mackenzie, most of Keewatin and all of Franklin.

The dividing line between the two regions coincides with the low watershed which separates the rivers draining into Hudson Bay from those which flow into the Arctic, and also with the tree line. There are practically no trees at all in the *Northern* region, which is the tundra of Canada. In the *Northwestern* region, practically the whole area is forested to some extent, though the tree growth is stunted in the far northern sections.

The most significant difference between the climates of the two regions is summer temperature. Frost-free summer days will run from an average of 67 at Chesterfield Inlet to only six or seven on Baffin and Ellesmere Islands. Throughout the Arctic Archipelago, there will

be one or two days a year when the thermometer will rise to 65 degrees or higher, but in summer as in winter the climate remains decidedly cold. This *Northern* region, in the winter, is almost continuously below zero.

Over in the *Northwestern* region, in the Yukon and the Mackenzie River valley, temperatures are much warmer in summer, and probably colder in winter except in the southern Yukon.

It is in rainfall and snowfall, or rather their scarcity, that the two regions show their greatest similarity. The north is by no means a land of much snow. Far less falls there than in southern Canada. Montreal, Ottawa and Toronto would have no snow-clearing problem if as little fell in those cities as falls almost anywhere in northern Canada in an average winter.

Everyone has read that cattle have been raised and crops grown at Aklavik, and it is more or less well known that some thousands of U.S. veterans settled on farms in Alaska at the end of the Second World War. From such scraps of information it is easy to jump to the conclusion that reasonably successful farming will be carried on in the Yukon and Northwest Territories as soon as there is enough population in any area to provide markets for the produce.

But any such conclusion seems rather wide of the probabilities. The cattle raising experiment at Aklavik

was not a practical success, and the "crops" were a few kinds of vegetables. Even after varieties of grains maturing in a very short growing season have been developed, as they undoubtedly will be, there is still only a slim chance of agricultural development north of Fort Simpson. Arable soil is scarce; what little exists is not of particularly good quality; and rainfall is so scanty that drought will always be a hazard.

Vegetables grow well in many parts of the Yukon and Northwest Territories. So it can be expected that kitchen gardens and market gardens will flourish almost anywhere there is settlement, provided the right kinds of fertilizer are generously applied. Most annual species of flowers, familiar in southern Canada, can also be grown. But field crops are never likely to be consistently successful except in some of the most southerly districts.

For the last 70 years there have been over-optimistic estimates of the possibilities of agriculture in the Yukon, and more recently in parts of the Northwest Territories. Perhaps, at the present time, there is a reaction in the opposite direction and there is an unjustified tendency to regard the agricultural possibilities as nil. Nevertheless, the hard fact remains that the census of 1951 found only four privately-operated farms in all of Canada north of the 60th parallel. There are two others, both experimental stations, operated by the Federal Government.

One is about a hundred miles west of Whitehorse in the Yukon. The other is at Fort Simpson in the Northwest Territories.

Fundamental conditions affecting agriculture are totally different throughout all of the Canadian northland from conditions in those parts of Alaska where there are comparatively extensive farmlands. Alaska's farming regions are mostly on the Pacific coast, where there is adequate and in many cases more than adequate rainfall. But the highest mountains in North America take the moisture out of the winds blowing in from the Pacific over the Yukon more thoroughly than the Coast Mountains and the Rockies do from the winds that blow across southern Alberta. The rainfall story is not greatly different across the Mackenzie and Keewatin districts all the way to Hudson Bay.

Not only are the St. Elias Mountains of the Yukon and some of the mountains of Alaska 5,000 to 8,000 feet higher than the mountains of British Columbia, but they are in a colder latitude. Both height and latitude combine to make the Yukon and Alaskan mountains the last word in wringers to squeeze the moisture out of air currents.

If it were not for the comparatively slow evaporation rate, the entire Canadian northland would be a desert. There isn't much snowfall or rainfall, but then the evaporation of moisture isn't nearly as rapid, taking things on

a year-round basis, as in southern Canada. Consequently, enough moisture remains in the soil—where there is arable soil—to support tree growth and plant life.

But it is a precarious balance. Late in each summer it is almost always touch and go whether the soil moisture will last through the short but intensive growing season. The average annual precipitation, measured over an eight-year period at the experimental substation of the federal Department of Agriculture a hundred miles west of Whitehorse, is 10·52 inches. This compares with 12 to 20 inches over most of Alberta and Saskatchewan and with 28 to 40 inches in southern Ontario and Quebec.

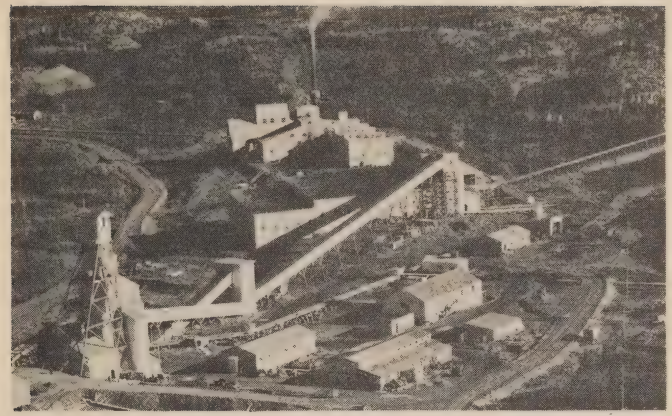
The short growing season in the Yukon and the Mackenzie valley gets its intensity, of course, from the long hours of summer sunlight. The air is as warm, or nearly as warm, as it is at the same season in the thickly populated parts of Quebec and Ontario, but the Yukon experimental substation gets 40 more hours of bright sunshine in May than the Central Experimental Farm at Ottawa. Anywhere near the Arctic Circle at midsummer there is enough light to support plant growth throughout virtually the entire 24 hours of each day.

Conditions for agriculture are slightly better in the Mackenzie valley than in the Yukon. At the Department of Agriculture experimental substation at Fort Simpson, near the confluence of the Liard and the Mackenzie, the

summer temperatures are a few degrees higher than at the Yukon station. The frost-free season at Fort Simpson is also slightly longer. The result is that some crops will mature at Fort Simpson in years when similar crops are caught by killing frosts in the Yukon.

Meanwhile, finding the right quality of soil for agriculture will always be a problem throughout the northland. The casual visitor, seeing the trees and the grasses and the numerous other types of vegetation growing everywhere except on bare rock, might think there are millions of acres of arable land. In some cases, notably in the case of wildflowers, vegetation may seem to be far more luxuriant than in the south. But it is quite a different matter when one tries to grow the familiar grains and plants of ordinary Canadian agriculture. Even with the phenomenal intensity of the northern growing season only a comparatively few varieties have time to mature properly. Many vegetables grow to astonishing size, but grains, even when they do mature, rarely yield as good crops as they would farther south. Here the limiting factor often seems to be the characteristics of the soil. By southern standards, there are very few areas of genuinely good soil in the north.

The economic life of northern Canada has a two-fold basis, minerals and furs. The fur trade existed as the sole commercial enterprise for more than a hundred years, then it was suddenly overshadowed by the Yukon gold



Mine at Yellowknife

rush. Approximately $100 million worth of gold was taken out of the Yukon in ten years, then production dropped down to an average of about $3 million a year.

In the Northwest Territories, minerals did not come into the picture until 1920 and did not exceed fur production in value until about ten years later. In 1920, the first oil was taken from wells on the shore of the Mackenzie River at Norman Wells but there was little if any market for it until the uranium deposit at Great Bear Lake was discovered in 1929-30. Gold at Yellowknife came next, but with all types of mining combined it was not until 1945 that mineral production in the Northwest Territories began to leave the fur trade behind in economic importance.



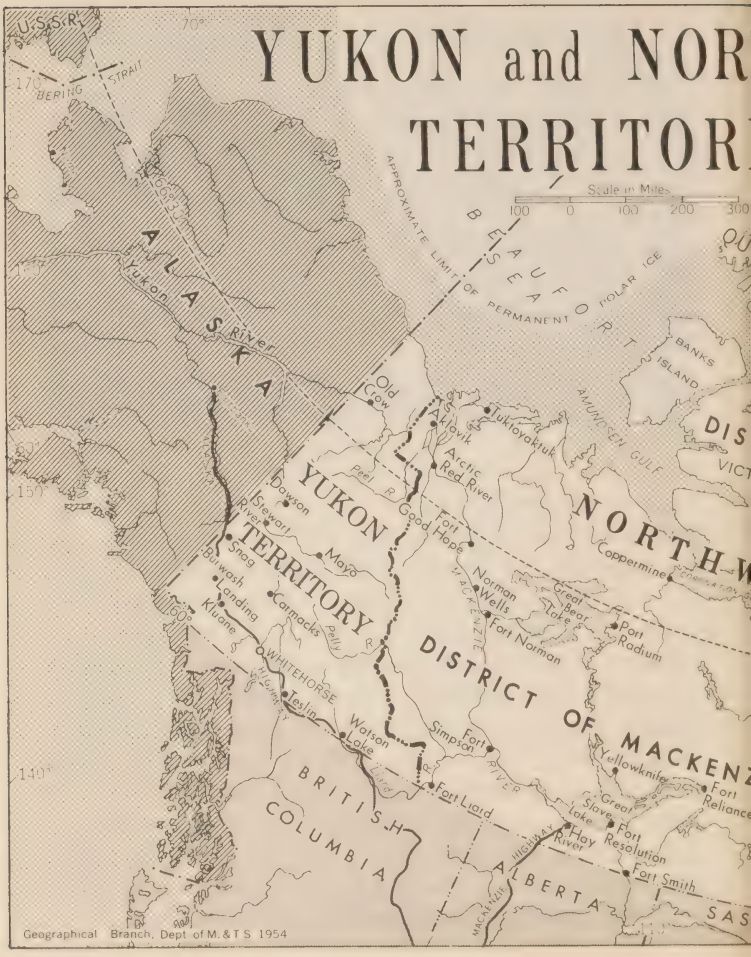
Hudson's Bay Company Store

For the natives, both Indian and Eskimos, furs have been for a century and a half, and still are, the main link with the economic system of the outside world. Some of the Indians do occasional day labour, but the northern Indian, with a racial background of centuries of seasonal migration to wherever game is plentiful, is too restless for the steady, day after day, year-long work required by the mines. Only semi-nomadic now, many Indians camp or live near trading posts. Recently a tendency of Indian families to move toward the Alaska Highway has been noticed in the southern Yukon. Near the highway there are greater opportunities for intermittent work and there is also some market for souvenirs and handicraft products.

The Eskimos have recently gained two additional small but perhaps important economic bases, reindeer herding and the sale of the small soapstone sculpture which they have made, apparently as a hobby, from time immemorial. Only a few Eskimo families are now engaged in reindeer herding, but if the experiment is a success this occupation may mark the transition from the nomadic to a more settled life for a percentage of the Eskimo race.

As may be imagined from the characteristics of the country and the great distances between settlements, transportation is one of the principal commercial activities. Whitehorse, for example, has always been largely dependent economically upon the transportation business. It is the terminus of the only railway in the north and the beginning of the steamboat route down the Yukon River; and now it has the Yukon's busiest airport.

A developing activity is the tourist business, particularly along the Alaska Highway; but it is easy to exaggerate the volume of tourist trade. One way of keeping things in perspective is to glance at the statistics of big game hunting by outside sportsmen. The Yukon is world-famous among hunters for certain rare types of mountain sheep and of course also for moose, bear and two types of caribou. But in 1953, only 62 big-game hunting licences were issued to non-Canadians and only four to Canadians not resident in the Yukon.


YUKON and NOR
TERRITOR
Scale in Miles
100 0 100 200 300
U.S.S.R.
BERING STRAIT
APPROXIMATE LIMIT OF PERMANENT POLAR ICE
BEAUFORT SEA
ALASKA
Yukon River
Old Crow
Aklavik
Tuktoyaktuk
Arctic Red River
BANKS ISLAND
AMUNDSEN GULF
DIS
VICT
YUKON TERRITORY
Peel R.
Good Hope
Fort
Dawson
Stewart River
Mayo
Snag
Burwash Landing
Carmacks
Pelly R.
Klu'ane
WHITEHORSE
Teslin
Watson Lake
Norman Wells
Great Bear Lake
Fort Norman
Coppermine
NORTHW
Port Radium
DISTRICT OF MACKENZ
Fort Simpson
Yellowknife
Fort Reliance
Great Slave Lake
Fort Laird
Hay River
Fort Resolution
Fort Smith
BRITISH COLUMBIA
ALBERTA
SAS
Geographical Branch, Dept of M.&T.S. 1954


WEST
S
Alert
Churchill
HUDSON BAY
Belcher Islands
ELLESMERE ISLAND
Bache Pen.
GREENLAND
James Bay
Hall Land
ELIZABETH ISLANDS
BATHURST ISLAND
Craig Harbour
DEVON ISLAND
Dundas Harbour
BAFFIN BAY
Upernavik
Resolute
LANCASTER SOUND
MELVILLE
NORTH MAGNETIC POLE
PRINCE OF WALES I.
Prince Regent Inlet
Arctic Bay
Pond Inlet
FRANKLIN
BAFFIN
BOOTHIA PEN.
GULF OF BOOTHIA
ISLAND
66° 30'
TERRITORIES
Pangnirtung
Cumberland Sd.
MELVILLE PEN.
FOXE BASIN
Arctic Circle
Repulse Bay
Frobisher Bay
Wager Bay
DISTRICT
SOUTHAMPTON ISLAND
Cape Dorset
RESOLUTION I. (Queen Elizabeth) Foreland
Baker Lake
Coral Harbour
Hudson Strait
Port Burwell
Cape Chidley
60°
OF
KEEWATIN
Chesterfield Inlet
HUDSON BAY
QUEBEC
Ungava Bay
Fort Chimo
MAN.
60°
90°
80°

Mining

In an entirely different class from such minor commercial activity is the mining industry. The cumulative value of all mineral production in the Yukon to the end of 1952 was $287,378,057. That, of course, includes the $100 million or more taken out during the first ten years of the gold rush. The year's production for 1952 had a total value of $11,276,221.

Silver is now the first-ranking Yukon mineral with lead in second place and gold a close third. Zinc, cadmium and coal follow in the order named. Copper, tungsten and antimony have also been produced in the Yukon. The principal centres of production are the Galena-Keno Hill area near Mayo for base metals, Dawson for gold and Carmacks for coal. In the southern Yukon there are copper-nickel and lead-zinc prospects in various stages of exploration and development.

The cumulative figure for mineral production in the Northwest Territories up to 1952 is $56,939,288; but this figure does not include the value of radioactive ore. If the monetary value of the ore from Eldorado on Great Bear Lake is as great as its historic and strategic importance the aggregate figure would be very large. Without this one mine it is doubtful that Canada would have been one of the three major partners in the initiation of the atomic age.



Port Radium

The value of non-radioactive minerals produced in the Northwest Territories in 1952 was $9,033,714. About $8 million of it came from the goldfields of Yellowknife. But present production is scarcely a drop in the bucket to what is expected in a few years' time. There is a lead-zinc deposit at Pine Point, on the south side of Great Slave Lake, which geologists regard as one of the most important thus far discovered anywhere in the world. It is considered certain that base-metals mining will far overshadow gold mining in the comparatively near future.

The combined populations of the Yukon and Northwest Territories at the time of the 1951 census totalled 25,100 people, and there has not been any major population change since then. The Yukon had a population of 9,096; the Northwest Territories had 16,004.

As is to be expected in any frontier region, males conspicuously outnumber females except among the native

aboriginal races. Among the Indians of the north, the females are slightly in the majority. Among the Eskimos, the males outnumber the females by a small percentage. But among the non-natives, the males outnumber the females by a larger proportion than anywhere else in Canada.

In the Yukon, the census figures listed 30 Eskimos, 1,533 Indians and 7,533 others. The figures for the Eskimos are not particularly significant because the Yukon's very small Eskimo population varies with the seasons. The few who live along the Arctic shoreline west of the mouth of the Mackenzie River move with the hunting into and out of Alaska. At the time the census was taken, there were 18 male and 12 female Eskimos on Canadian soil in the Yukon. The 1,533 Indians consisted of 734 males and 799 females. But the 7,533 non-aboriginal residents of the Yukon were 4,705 males and 2,828 females, a proportion of 62 males to 38 females.

In the Northwest Territories, the aboriginal population outnumbers the settlers, the miners, the traders and the trappers who have come in from the south. The Eskimos and Indians total 10,660, of whom 6,822 are Eskimos. Of the 5,344 non-aborigines, 3,535 are males and 1,709 females, a proportion of two to one.

Aside from the Eskimos and the Indians, the people of the Northwest Territories and the Yukon are overwhelmingly of British Isles racial background. People



Parkas are Popular

of French ancestry are the next largest ethnic group, more of them in the Northwest Territories than in the Yukon. Others include 921 of Scandinavian origin or ancestry; 532 of German; 374 of Ukrainian; nearly 300 of Dutch and about 250 of Polish.

Perhaps the most startling thing about the towns and settlements of the north is how few people live in them. Internationally-known names like Whitehorse, Dawson and Norman Wells represent populations of 2,594 for Whitehorse, 783 for Dawson and 95 for Norman Wells.

A Man's Country

The largest town in the north is Yellowknife, with a population of 2,724. Fort Smith, the "capital" of the Mackenzie District and one of the most important transportation centres of the north, has a population of 442. Fort Simpson has 525. Mayo, in the Yukon, one of Canada's most widely-known new mining centres, has 241 within the town itself. However, several hundred others live in the immediate vicinity of the mines.

It's a man's country in the towns as it is everywhere else in the north. There are 144 males in Mayo and 97 females; 1,417 males in Whitehorse and 1,177 females; 1,766 males in Yellowknife and 958 females. Even in Dawson, which has been settled so long that it looks in the summer like one of the elderly villages of southwestern Ontario, the males outnumber the females by 416 to 367.

To govern vast areas with comparatively small and widely-scattered populations is a special problem. Theoretically, and indeed practically, a number of types of administration have been worked out by various countries to meet the circumstances of new or frontier regions; but few of these types would be acceptable to North Americans. In any case, largely by force of circumstance, Canada, in the Yukon and the Northwest Territories, and the United States, in Alaska, have developed the territorial system of administration.

Neither the Yukon nor the Northwest Territories were part of Canada at the time of Confederation in 1867.



Yellowknife, N.W.T.

The first provinces, it will be remembered, were Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec and Ontario. The first new province to come into Confederation was Manitoba and British Columbia followed a year later. On the date of Manitoba's entry, June 23, 1870, the government of Great Britain transferred to the young Canadian government sovereignty over the huge territory that extended from Manitoba to the Rockies and northward to the Arctic. This new part of Canada, much of it formerly called Rupert's Land, was given the name of Northwest Territories. Subsequently, the Northwest Territories were enlarged to include all the other British territory in the north.

Territorial Government

The southern part of the Northwest Territories developed rapidly. By 1905 it was ready for the establishment of two new provinces, Alberta and Saskatchewan. But before that the Yukon, already set up provisionally as a separate district of the Northwest Territories, was formally constituted as a distinct territory in 1898. In 1912, parts of the Northwest Territories were added to Manitoba, Ontario and Quebec.

In the period between 1870 and the establishment of Alberta and Saskatchewan in 1905, Canada gained a great deal of experience in territorial government, including all the stages of development which precede the time when an area becomes populous enough to support provincial status. Had the Yukon gained permanent population continuously at the rate at which temporary population came in during the gold rush days, it might have been a province before either Saskatchewan or Alberta. In short, territorial government can be looked upon, at least from one point of view, as a stage in the evolution toward provincial government, provided population increases in relation to area to the point where the people can afford to support all the normal institutions of a province. If population does not develop sufficiently, the territorial type of government provides the functional counterpart of most of those institutions in a simplified form.

Yukon Administration

The main theoretical difference between territorial government and provincial government in Canada is that, in the territories, all the powers of government are exercised by or delegated by the federal government of the nation, whereas, in a province, in accordance with the terms of the British North America Act, sovereign rights in various spheres of authority are apportioned between the federal government and the provincial government.

The territorial government of the Yukon is composed at present of a chief executive with the title of commissioner and an elective legislative council of five members. Elections are for a three-year term of office. The commissioner administers the government under instructions from the Governor in Council or the federal Minister of Northern Affairs. The Commissioner in Council — in other words, the commissioner and the five-man elective legislative council — has the power to make ordinances dealing with property and civil rights, local taxes, the sale of liquor, the conservation of game, the establishment of territorial offices, the maintenance of municipal institutions and prisons, the issue of licences, the incorporation of companies, the solemnization of marriage, the administration of justice and, generally, all matters of a local nature.

For half a century the administrative centre of the Yukon was Dawson, but in 1953 the seat of territorial government was moved to Whitehorse. The territorial

government itself has only a very small number of senior officials. Other officials are stationed in the Yukon by the Northern Administration and Lands Branch of the Department of Northern Affairs, the director of which is responsible for the general administration of the Territory. Other officials in the Yukon represent such federal departments as Justice, National Revenue, Transport, Post Office and Health and Welfare.

The government of the Northwest Territories is similar in many respects to that of the Yukon; but there are important differences most of which arise out of the facts that the area is so vast and the population so small and scattered. The official seat of government is Ottawa, although Fort Smith is a local centre of administration. The head of the government is a commissioner, who is the federal deputy minister of Northern Affairs and National Resources. He acts under instructions given from time to time by the Governor General in Council (the federal government) or the Minister of Northern Affairs and National Resources. The commissioner is advised by a council of nine members, four of whom are elected by the people of four constituencies in the Mackenzie District. The other five are senior federal officials appointed by the Governor in Council. The Commissioner in Council exercises legislative powers and makes ordinances similar to those that are within the jurisdiction of the Commissioner in Council in the Yukon. The Council



Good Fishing

meets at least twice a year, one of the meetings being at some point in the Northwest Territories, usually Yellowknife or Fort Smith, the other being in Ottawa.

Both the Yukon and the Mackenzie District of the Northwest Territories have representation in the House of Commons at Ottawa. The Yukon became a federal constituency in 1902. In 1947 the Yukon constituency

was enlarged to include part of Mackenzie. Five years later the Representation Act of 1952 provided for a federal constituency in the Yukon and another in the Mackenzie District.

Formally organized municipal government is established at two places in the Northwest Territories, Hay River and Yellowknife. Yellowknife has an elected mayor and municipal council. Hay River has a partially elected and partially appointed town board or council.

The Royal Canadian Mounted Police are in charge of all law enforcement in both the Yukon and the Northwest Territories. They are thus responsible for the enforcement of the federal statutes, including the Criminal Code, and also the Territorial Ordinances. In such organized towns as Whitehorse and Yellowknife they are also responsible for enforcing various municipal by-laws.

But the formal side of law enforcement, important as it is, is only part of police work in the north. Throughout most of these vast areas the first Northwest Mounted Police in the country were also the first official representatives of government and administration in all their aspects. In addition to their ordinary police work, the early policemen performed most of the functions of administration that are usually the duties of a considerable number and variety of civil servants. Some of these administrative functions are still among the duties of the police in the north.



He's a Doctor, too

Another complicating aspect of northern police work is that of enforcing the same law in three different cultural situations, two of them Stone-Age civilizations. One of those cultures, the one that was a joint heritage of the nine main tribes of Yukon and Northwest Territories Indians, has been partially shattered over a long period by the impingement upon it of the white man's culture. The Eskimo culture seems to have been better able to maintain its own integrity, possibly because the Eskimo culture itself was fundamentally stronger but more probably because it was able to remain isolated long enough for traders, administrators and settlers to learn the importance of respecting it.



Aklavik Cathedral Choir

In any case, among aboriginal peoples, who are not without moral and ethical attitudes of their own, the reasons for some paleface laws are not always self-evident. The good policeman in the north must provide special types of protection for native populations and long-term education and assistance to the natives in understanding new ways.

The courts of the Yukon and Northwest Territories are essentially the same in function and jurisdiction as those of any of the provinces of Canada, although their organization may appear to be simpler on the surface.

Law Court

The senior court of the Yukon is the Territorial Court at Whitehorse. Its jurisdiction in both civil and criminal cases is the same as that of a provincial supreme court. The bench of the Yukon Territorial Court consists of one judge, a man who almost certainly has authority over a wider area, geographically speaking, than any other judge in the world. He is also empowered to try cases in the Northwest Territories. His territory thus consists of more than a third of the land area of Canada.

Cases involving breaches of the law less serious than those that would be heard by the senior court are tried by a police magistrate in Whitehorse or by justices of the peace in the various larger settlements. There are juvenile court judges at Whitehorse, Dawson and Mayo.

During the past few years, the Northwest Territories has been without a permanently organized senior court; but a Territorial Court, similar to that in the Yukon, is now being established. For the time being, the judge at Whitehorse will have jurisdiction in both Territorial Courts.

Stipendiary magistrates and a number of justices of the peace have been handling the police court work of the Northwest Territories. Under the new organization which brings the Northwest Territories Territorial Court into existence, the stipendiary magistrates are being replaced

by police magistrates, and the system of justice as a whole will be almost identical with that in the Yukon.

The education of children of settlers in the Northwest Territories is the responsibility of the Territorial Council. The education of Eskimo children is the responsibility of the Northern Administration and Lands Branch of the Department of Northern Affairs. The education of Indian children has been the responsibility of the Indian Affairs Branch of the Department of Citizenship and Immigration, but it has been announced that on April 1, 1955, it was to be transferred to the Department of Northern Affairs.

The various jurisdictions may appear complicated, but for practical purposes all education in the Northwest Territories, except that of Indian children, has been under the actual administration of the education and vocational training services section of the Northern Administration and Lands Branch of the Department of Northern Affairs. There has been, moreover, practical co-operation between the two Departments in the case of the Indian schools. For example, in settlements where the Indian population is in the majority and the Department of Citizenship has established a school for Indian children, arrangements are made for the children of settlers to attend this school. In other cases, where the Indian population is small, the Indian children attend the schools under the jurisdiction

of the Department of Northern Affairs. There are instances, however, where there will be a long-established Indian school in the same community with a school for the children of settlers. Some of these Indian schools are gradually disappearing as classroom accommodation becomes available in the ordinary schools. Where new Indian schools are established in the vicinity of existing schools they are usually residential institutions in which children can have a settled life while their more or less nomadic parents migrate with the hunting seasons or in search of seasonal employment.

The school system of the Yukon, while technically and constitutionally separate, is much the same as that of the Northwest Territories. There is, however, one major difference; there are no Eskimo schools, there being virtually no Eskimos there to attend them. The Yukon public schools all come under the jurisdiction of the Territorial Government. The Indian schools, like those in the Northwest Territories, have been under the Indian Affairs Branch of Citizenship and Immigration.

Three different curricula are used in the schools of northern Canada. In the Yukon, the British Columbia curriculum is followed. In the Mackenzie District, where most of the public schools in the Northwest Territories are located, the curriculum is that of Alberta. The Department of Northern Affairs has arrangements with both these provinces whereby university entrance examinations



Art Class at Yellowknife

are conducted in accordance with the respective provincial standards and certificates are issued to the successful candidates.

In the Eastern Arctic, where the schools for Eskimo children are located, there is a curriculum especially designed for Eskimo needs. Emphasis is on vocational training which will be particularly useful in the Eskimo way of life. The traditional academic side of education is by no means neglected, but reading, writing and arithmetic are not necessarily taught in the same way or at the same stages in the same age groups as in schools elsewhere in

Canada. Strictly utilitarian types of education, for example manual training and domestic science, are introduced much earlier than would be the case in ordinary schools. Both the latter subjects are taught in Grade I of the Eskimo schools whereas a youngster in any of the provincial school systems would not be likely to encounter them until he reached Grade VIII or Grade IX. The Eskimos' mechanical ability is recognized, and in the higher grades such subjects as the overhaul of internal combustion marine engines, both inboard and outboard, are studied.

The day schools for Eskimo children, operated directly by the Department of Northern Affairs, are at Aklavik, Tuktoyaktuk, Coppermine, Coral Harbour on Southampton Island, Cape Dorset on Baffin Island, Chesterfield Inlet and Port Harrison on Hudson Bay, and Fort Chimo on Ungava Bay.

Additional day schools, and a few residential schools attended by Eskimo children and often also by white and Indian children, are provided by missions, mainly those of the Church of England and the Roman Catholic Church. There are 35 of these mission schools throughout the north, 29 of them day schools and the remaining six residential. All of them receive annual federal financial grants for their educational services.

Yellowknife is the only settlement in the Northwest Territories with a municipal school system organized in

much the same way as systems run by school boards or boards of education in the older parts of Canada. There is a 12-room public school, under the administration of the Yellowknife Public School Board, and a four-room school under the administration of the Yellowknife Separate School Board. Elementary and secondary education are provided in both these schools.

At Fort Smith, Fort Simpson and Fort Resolution there are federally-operated day schools but elsewhere education is mainly taken care of by the mission schools. There are two exceptions. At the Discovery mine, about 50 miles from Yellowknife, there is a school provided by the mining company. The other mine school is at Port Radium on Great Bear Lake. There the Eldorado Company provides the school building and the Department of Northern Affairs provides the teacher.

But there are some families in the north too far from any settlement where schools exist. In such cases, the children are provided with correspondence courses. The cost of these courses is borne by the Northwest Territories Administration.

The biggest school in the north is a 32-room public and high school at Whitehorse. There is also a three-room separate school in Whitehorse. Schools of from one to three rooms in size are located at Mayo, Carcross, Kluane

Chesterfield Inlet Eskimos



Lake, Haines Junction, Brooks, Teslin, Swift River, Watson Lake and Elsa in the Yukon. Dawson has a five-room public school and a one-room separate school.

There are five day and residential schools for Indian children in the Yukon and another attended by the children of some Yukon Indians lies just across the provincial boundary in British Columbia. The Indian schools in the Yukon will continue to be operated by the Indian Affairs Branch of the Department of Citizenship and Immigration. In the Northwest Territories, eight Indian schools and a new one under construction at Fort Liard were taken over by the Department of Northern Affairs on April 1, 1955.

There is still another unusual aspect of education in the north: resident teachers are provided by the Department of Northern Affairs at the hospitals in such places as Aklavik, Fort Smith and Fort Resolution. When patients, whether children or adults, are convalescing, the teachers continue the school work of the children or, in the case of the adults, take the opportunity to try to make up at least to some extent for educational deficiencies often due to lack of earlier opportunity in frontier conditions.

Northern Canada has long been a source of inspiration to artists. Writers, painters and photographers have visited the Yukon and Northwest Territories and some of

them have produced notable work. The pioneer was, of course, the poet Robert W. Service. Subsequently many books, most of them factual and descriptive, have been written about both the Yukon and the NWT. Good photographers, both still and motion-picture, have for many years been bringing back excellent pictures of the north for publication in southern Canada. For example, part of the world-wide reputation of Robert Flaherty was based on his great documentary movie of Eskimo life, "Nanook of the North". A considerable number of paintings of the north, by at least four Canadian painters, are in the National Gallery of Canada. Lawren Harris, A. Y. Jackson and F. H. Varley have all painted in the far north, some of their work dating back to the early days of the Group of Seven. During the Second World War numerous paintings of the country and of RCAF activities in both the Yukon and Northwest Territories were done by F/L Pat Cowley-Brown and are now in the Gallery's war records collection.

But these are all instances of outsiders going into the north, being impressed by it, recording their impressions and inspiration, and returning again to the south. In the last five years, however, an extraordinary development has occurred. The Eskimos have begun sending their own art to the south, and it is so good that it has caused an international sensation among artists and art



Mother and Child

critics. For centuries the Eskimos have been doing miniature sculpture in soapstone or bone or walrus ivory or in combinations of these materials, and nobody paid much attention to the fact until the exceptionally fine quality of some of their work was noticed in 1948 by James A. Houston, an artist who was painting on the east coast of Hudson Bay. Houston drew the attention of the Canadian Handicrafts Guild to the Eskimo sculptures and arrangements were made for the display and sale of some of the carvings in the south. Such a demand for Eskimo



Fishing Through Ice

sculpture developed that approximately 25,000 of the little figures have been sold in Canada, the United States and Europe, often at astonishingly high prices. It has been estimated that the number of sales has exceeded the number of sales by the professional sculptors of all European countries during the same period.

Here was a new and important source of cash income for the Eskimos. The only one they had ever had before was the fur of the white fox. Mr. Houston became a member of the staff of the Department of Northern

Affairs, with the duty of encouraging Eskimo sculptors and setting up a system which ensures a fair and prompt financial return from their work.

Indian handicrafts have been sold to visitors to the north for many decades. As in the south, the Indian of the north has been relatively swift to produce the type of souvenirs readily saleable to tourists. But articles of sound and often beautiful craftsmanship, for example caribou skin jackets in the Yukon and beadwork of exquisite design in the Northwest Territories, are also produced. Handicraft training, incidentally, often has an important place in the curricula of schools attended by Indian children in the north. In the case of the Eskimos, however, the problem is not to provide training in handicrafts; on the contrary, in the case of sculpture at any rate, it is to make sure that the very great aesthetic qualities of Eskimo art are not diluted by conventional professional art instruction.

Eskimo art has the element of surprise about it that is highly characteristic of the Canadian north. What could be more surprising than to learn that some of the untaught Eskimos may be better artists than any other sculptors in North America and that their work is comparable in certain qualities with that of Epstein and Mestrovic?

The north is a land of surprises. From the headwaters of the Yukon River may ultimately come more power than will be generated by the hydro developments of the St. Lawrence Seaway. Pine Point will likely be one of the greatest base metals mining sites of the world; but who is to say that other mineral deposits, far overshadowing it, are not waiting to be discovered? Roughly 35 per cent of the Canadian Shield, the source of most of Canada's mineral wealth, is in the Northwest Territories, and only a small fraction of it has been carefully explored by geologists and prospectors.

How much petroleum will the Mackenzie Valley ultimately produce? Only two or three oil wells supply all the present needs of the small refinery at Norman Wells; but there are more than 60 other wells there, drilled during the Second World War and now capped. Meanwhile, the underlying geological formations of the Mackenzie Valley, all the way from Great Slave Lake to the Arctic Ocean, are similar to some of those which have endowed Alberta with oil.

There are even retrospective surprises in the north. When you walk along one of the quiet streets in the little village of Dawson, you can scarcely bring yourself to believe that here was once a roaring gold rush city of more than 30,000 inhabitants. At Whitehorse, you may have difficulty in believing that here is a town, now in its third

major surge of vigorous development (it slipped back after the gold rush period and again after the Second World War) which may become a bustling modern city of 10,000.

So many of the things they do in the north are surprising. They are going to pick up Aklavik, the largest Canadian town in the far north, and set it down again on a new townsite 33 miles east of its present location. As this is being written, they are debating whether to load the buildings on scows and tow them during the summer 80 or 100 miles through the tortuous channels of the Mackenzie delta or load them on runners and drag them across the frozen channels and delta islands in winter. The latter seems the more logical idea until you learn that pressure ridges in the ice of the channels are so rough that buildings on sleds would likely be shaken to pieces by the journey.

The old Aklavik townsite is low-lying, unsanitary and subject to floods. There is not enough drainage for a proper sewage system. There is not enough firm land for a year-round modern airport. More space is needed for an increasing population, which at present fluctuates between 600 and 1,500, depending on how many Eskimos, who comprise about 70 per cent of the residents, are out of town on hunting expeditions. The new townsite on the east channel of the Mackenzie meets the requirements.

The Future

In the Yukon and Northwest Territories, anything can happen—and usually does. That may be why, in the south, it is easy to hold unrealistic ideas about the north, some of them too optimistic, others too pessimistic. It goes without saying that there will be many developments in the next few years, but not even the experts can predict all the trends with complete clarity. The north is almost certain to come up with surprises that will upset some of the best calculations.

Meanwhile, it is an immense land. Man-made patterns are not imposed upon it easily.

Photos courtesy of
National Film Board of Canada and
RCAF.

Reproduction of painting by
P. Cowley-Brown on page 14
courtesy of National Gallery
of Canada.

Maps prepared by Geographical Branch,
Department of Mines and Technical
Surveys.

HOW TO USE THIS PAMPHLET

THE YUKON AND NORTHWEST TERRITORIES

This is Article No. 16 in the CITIZENSHIP SERIES of CURRENT AFFAIRS pamphlets.

Read this pamphlet carefully, make notes and follow a definite plan in presenting your material in the discussion hour.

The headings in the pamphlet are arranged so that you can present your material in an orderly manner.

Place-names can be found on the accompanying map which should be referred to frequently so as to familiarize the group with the geography.

The following questions are suggested for discussion at the end of the presentation of your material:

1. What are the principal geographical features of the Yukon and Northwest Territories?
2. How does the climate compare with that of southern Canada?
3. What are the agricultural and industrial possibilities?
4. How are the Yukon and Northwest Territories governed?

Do not forget to make a summary of the discussion in the last five minutes of the hour.

EDMOND CLOUTIER, C.M.G., O.A., D.S.P.
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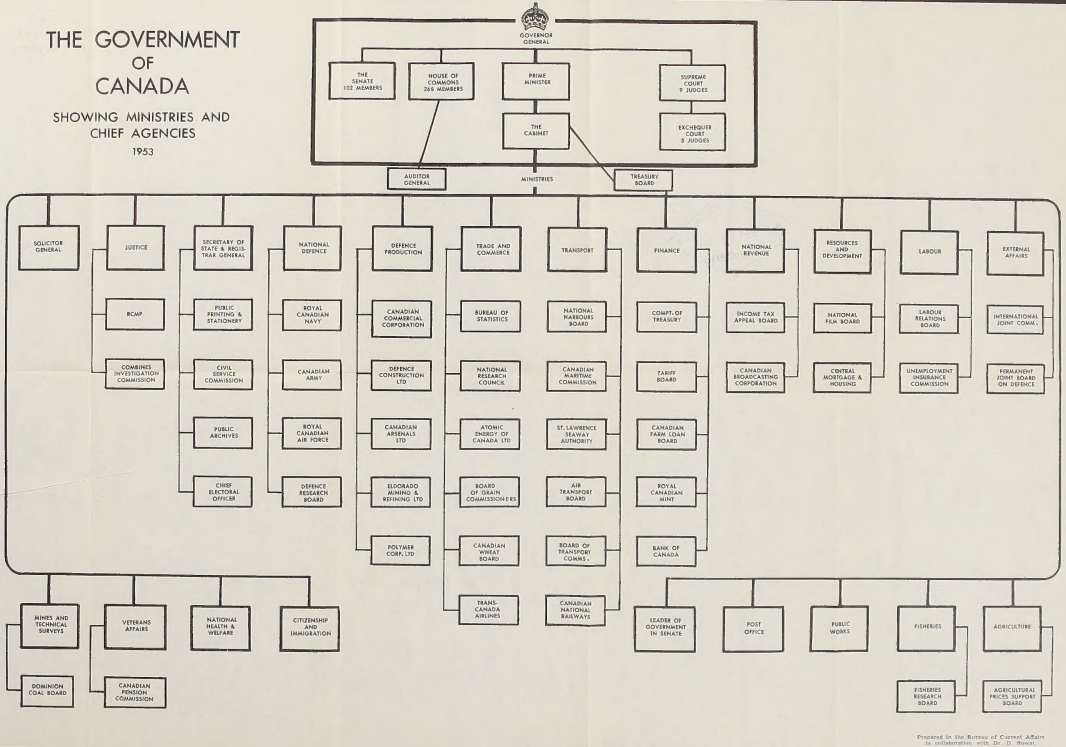

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YUKON TERRITORY
NORTH WEST TERRITORIES

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THE GOVERNMENT OF CANADA

SHOWING MINISTRIES AND CHIEF AGENCIES

1953



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